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ART. I. *Zoological Lectures,* delivered at the Royal Institution in the Years 1806 and 1807, by George Shaw, M.D. F.R.S &c. &c. with Plates from the first Authorities and most select Specimens, engraved principally by Mrs. Griffith. 2 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1809.

FEW pursuits are more interesting, rational, and innocent than the cultivation of the different branches of natural science; and among them the study of Zoology, or of the habits, the characteristic differences, the powers, and the adaptations of the various animals by whom the chief animal Man is surrounded, may certainly be considered as holding a distinguished place. Yet, comparatively speaking, we seldom meet in society with individuals, male or female, who have directed a share of their attention to this object; and, excepting a superficial acquaintance with those domestic creatures who are constantly before our eyes, and administer to our daily wants and pleasures, zoographical acquirements are mostly confined to men who professedly devote themselves entirely to the science of Natural History, or to those who render this knowlege subservient to the purposes of trade. Chemistry and Botany have of late gained much ground among us, as polite accomplishments; and we see no reason that should prevent the contemplation of the animal world from becoming equally prevalent. To facilitate a diffusion of this taste, it is known to our readers that Dr. Shaw has already done much; and in the work now before us we have not only additional evidence of his labours, but, considering the place in which his discourses were delivered, additional cause for auguring well of their success.

The lectures are only twelve in number, and are intended to illustrate, in a short and popular manner, the history of animated nature, according to the Linnéan mode of arrangement; with such occasional deviations, or transpositions, as the recent state of knowlege has suggested. The object of the introductory part of the first lecture is to recommend the

study of Natural History; but the most cogent and sublime inducements to its prosecution are rather obscurely noticed; while disproportionate stress is laid on a subordinate motive, deduced from the blunders into which celebrated poets and others have been betrayed by their neglect of this department of science. We admit an obvious propriety in stating such arguments, and in allowing them their due weight: but we do not regard it as the part of a skilful pleader to give them a preference over more convincing and important reasoning.

Under the head of methodical arrangement, we could have desired a more decided leaning to the *ascending* series; both because it better coincides with our ideas of taste, and because it is attended with more ease and gratification to the student than the inverse procedure.

Having sketched the great outlines of the Linnéan classification, Dr. Shaw very properly hints at the Cuvierian division of *Vertebrated* and *Invertebrated* animals: but some of the extraordinary phænomena in the history of the *Polypi* are here misplaced, especially as they are re-stated in the sequel.

Lectures second, third, and fourth, present a very rapid view of the *Mammiferous* animals; including the *Pinnated* and *Cetaceous* families, in the form of distinct divisions annexed to the other orders.—In the whole of this extensive range, we observe little that needs detain us. Yet, in justice to the Doctor's candour, we shall make room for the ensuing paragraph:

'A few years ago a very remarkable animal was brought into this country from the interior parts of Bengal, which by Mr. Pennant and others was referred to the present genus, and considered as a species of Sloth. Its general appearance however was so much allied to that of a Bear, that it was natural enough, at first sight, to suppose it to belong to the genus Ursus. It was in company with Mr. Pennant that I first examined it with accuracy, and could not but agree with him in opinion that it should be regarded as a species of Sloth, from the appearance of the teeth. But the age of the animal was not ascertained, and it was not clear that it had gained the legitimate number of its teeth. It was described by myself under the name of *Bradypus ursinus*, or the Ursine Sloth, and has been extremely well figured by an ingenious artist, whose representation has been repeated in different works. The animal was about the size of a Bear, and of a black colour, with very long shaggy hair; a lengthened, naked, and flexible snout; five excessively strong, curved claws on the fore-feet, and five much smaller, and of a rounder shape, on the hind feet; the tail and ears very short. Its motions were not peculiarly languid, as in the Sloths, but moderately lively: its manners were gentle, and it fed on vegetable substances and milk. I forbear any longer description of the animal, and must refer those who wish for more particular information, to the description given in the Naturalist's Miscellany, and in the last Edition of Mr. Pennant's Quadrupeds;

peds; but I have now to observe that in consequence of information received on this subject from an ingenious naturalist lately arrived from India, and who has had opportunities of examining the animal in its native regions, it ought really to be referred to the genus *Ursus* or Bear, and may therefore not improperly be named Ursus Bengalensis or the Bengal Bear.'

The design and complexion of these pages had induced us to expect much pleasing detail in the illustration of the canine species: but how were we mortified to find the dog-tribe only technically defined by generic characters, and then dismissed with the important remark that the visage is of a lengthened shape!

The Cetaceous Mammalia, though not allowed to tumble about in the free expanse of their native element, afford us no ordinary entertainment, as they pass in review before us:

'With respect to the anatomy of the Whale, I shall content myself with observing, that on so colossal a scale of magnitude does nature act in these animals, that the vertebræ or joints of the back-bone are of the size of moderate barrels; the ribs and jaw-bones so large as to be occasionally used to form the sides of tall, arched gateways; the heart too large to be contained in a very wide tub; the aorta or principal artery measures about a foot in diameter, and it is computed that the quantity of blood thrown into it at every pulsation of the heart, is not less than from ten to fifteen gallons.

'The strength of the great Northern Whale is prodigious; it is able to shatter a strong canoe in pieces with a single stroke of its tail: it swims, according to the computation of Cepede, at the rate of about thirty-three feet in a second, and it is further computed that in the space of about forty-seven days, it might circumnavigate the globe in the direction of the equator, even allowing it to rest by night during the whole time. It is supposed to be an extremely long-lived animal. The female produces, in general, but one young at a birth, which usually measures something more than twenty feet in length; and she has the reputation of being very tenderly attached to her offspring.'—

'The Physeter Macrocephalus, or great Spermaceti Whale, is not greatly inferior in size to the Great Whalebone Whale or Mysticete, and is of a shape not less uncouth; the head being of so vast a size as at least to equal a third of the length of the whole animal. It is from this Whale, as well as from some others of this genus, that the well-known substance popularly known by the name of Spermaceti is obtained. This substance, which in the living animal is a liquid oil, is contained in a vast cellular cavity within the head; when exposed to the effect of cold air, it concretes into a solid form: it exists in other parts of the animal, as well as in the head, and may be gained from the blubber or common oil by proper preparation: in a smaller proportion also it is found to exist in the blubber of all the rest of the Whale tribe, and even in the oil of the generality of marine animals.

'Another remarkable production of this and other species of the Physeter tribe, is known by the name of Ambergris, and has long

continued its reputation as an agreeable perfume. Ambergris is an opake whitish, greyish, or yellowish substance, so light as to swim, not only in water, but even in spirit of wine. Its real origin was formerly much disputed, but it is now ascertained to be a product from the Whales of this tribe, and it will perhaps excite some surprise in those who may not be informed of its real nature, to be told that it is no other than part of the natural contents of the animals' intestines, hardened by the effect of some disease, into a compact or unusually solid state. An idea has been entertained, and perhaps it is not an improbable one, that Ambergris owes it odour to the flesh of a particular species of Cuttle Fish, which has naturally a musky smell, and on which these Whales are known particularly to feed. In the larger pieces of Ambergris, the horny beaks of these Cuttle Fish are generally found imbedded.

In the two next Lectures, which complete the first volume, we are called to a survey of the feathered tribes: but here Dr. S. exhibits a very abridged and inadequate view of ornithology. We know not on what principle of partition the history of birds should occupy less space than that of quadrupeds, since their kinds are more multiplied, and their manners at least equally attractive; nor why it should be treated at no greater length than that of the molluscous animals, which is still obscure, and belongs to a much lower station in the Zoological scale.

The Linnéan *amphibia* compose the subject of the seventh Lecture. Before he particularizes the different kinds of *Testudo*, Dr. Shaw takes occasion to remark that in no branch of Natural History have more errors prevailed, than in the attempts of the most respectable systematists to discriminate the species by invariable marks. Those which were laid down by Linné, and his editor Gmelin, have been found to be entirely insufficient for the purposes of accurate distinction. The Count de la Cépède has by no means removed the general ambiguity; and Schoeff, a German Zoologist of considerable eminence, has exposed the fallacy of long established criteria assumed from the claws; since some specimens of the common green Turtle will be found with only a single claw on each foot, others with two, or even three, and others with two on the fore-feet, and one on the hind. The same diversity is occasionally observable in the feet of some of the land Tortoises, and particularly in those of the Greek, or common species.

Dr. Shaw's sketch of the serpentine race is, avowedly, 'very short,' and in fact limited to eight pages. Yet our readers will, perhaps, admit that this is no unfair proportion of consideration, since the fishes are dispatched in the eighth, and the insects in the ninth Lecture. The preliminary observations

servations on both are at once comprehensive, and expressed with Dr. Shaw's appropriate elegance and neatness.—Though the *Halsydrus* be still very imperfectly known, the recent notices of portions of its remains might have been introduced with propriety, immediately after the sharks.

On the much controverted question concerning the circulation of the blood in insects, we have these sensible observations:

'It has been a matter of doubt among naturalists, and particularly those of the French School, whether insects can properly be said to have a circulation of the blood; and whether they have any organ that can properly be called a heart. The celebrated Cuvier seems to suppose that they have not. It is acknowledged indeed that the animals of the Crab and Lobster tribe, the Monoculi, and others of that particular cast, have a genuine circulation; but these animals should, according to some Zoologists, be separated from insects, and form a distinct division in the animal kingdom. Nay, Monsieur Lamarck is willing to exclude even the Spider tribe from the class of insects, because in these animals the heart and circulation of the blood are distinctly visible.

'The organ which the famous Italian anatomist Malpighi supposed to constitute the heart, or rather a kind of chain of hearts, in the Silkworm, has been since proved to be a vessel of a different nature, the use of which does not appear to be fully understood; but no ramifications of blood-vessels proceed from it.

'It seems to have escaped the attention of those who are not willing to allow a circulation of the blood in insects, that, though it may not be perceptible in the major part, yet it certainly appears to take place in some which are allowed on all hands to be genuine insects; and particularly in the genus Cimex or Bug. I shall here give a quotation on this subject from an author, who, though he cannot be supposed to have deeply investigated the anatomy of insects, was yet an excellent general observer, and who detailed with great plainness and accuracy his own observations, viz. Mr Henry Baker, the celebrated microscopic observer. In speaking of the common Bug or Cimex lectularius, Mr. Baker says: "In the legs of these insects, when very small, the current of the blood is remarkably visible, together with an extraordinary vibration of the vessels, which I have never observed in any other creature; and though one of these animals has been confined between two glasses for many weeks together, so as not to be incapable of stirring, and has at times appeared dead, yet a little warmth, properly applied, would renew the motion of the bowels, and the circulation of the blood as briskly as ever." Mr. Baker also observes that the circulation of the blood may be perceived in the wings of Grashoppers, and that the globules of the blood in these animals are of a green colour.'

The naked and testaceous *Mollusca* are respectively considered in the tenth and eleventh Lectures. Without specifying each genus of the former description, the author is

contented to select, as examples, such as he conceives to be most important or most curious. Here *Limax*, or the *slug*, figures in the fore-ground; not only as a conspicuous genus, but as the pattern or model of the inhabitants of most of the univalve or spiral shells.

Pyrosoma, a genus of marine Mollusca, recently instituted by the French naturalists, is thus characterized:

'This animal (for there is only one species yet discovered) is of a lengthened and tubular form, open at one extremity, and closed at the other; the body is scattered over with numerous soft papillæ or tubercles, and there is no appearance of any regular viscera, or internal organs, but the whole presents a continued vacuity. The colour of this curious animal, when at rest, is a pale greenish blue; but, when in motion, which is performed by the alternate contraction and dilatation of the body, the whole appears in the highest degree of phosphoric lustre, passing through all the colours of a bar of red-hot iron, till at length it becomes of what is termed a white-heat; after which it again passes into the colour of red-hot iron, and from that gradually declines into its original greenish hue. The length of this animal is that of several inches, and its diameter about a fourth or fifth of its length. It is a native of some particular parts of the Atlantic ocean, where it is seen in great multitudes, and irradiates the waves with its fiery brilliancy. Linnæus would perhaps have been inclined to have made it a species of Holothuria.'

We would not willingly suppress the remarks which accompany the description of the Eight-armed Cuttle-fish:

'Mr. Pennant, in the fourth volume of his British Zoology, speaking of the Eight-armed Cuttle, tells us, he has been well assured from persons worthy of credit, that in the Indian seas this species has been found of such a size as to measure two fathoms in breadth across the central part, while each arm has measured nine fathoms in length; and that the natives of the Indian isles, when sailing in their canoes, always take care to be provided with hatchets, in order to cut off immediately the arms of such of those animals as happen to fling them over the sides of the canoe, lest they should pull it under water and sink it. This has been considered as a piece of credulity in Mr. Pennant, unworthy of a sober naturalist. It is certain however that a great variety of apparently authentic evidences seem to confirm the reality of this account. The ancients, it is evident, acknowledged the existence of animals of the Cuttle-Fish tribe of a most enormous size; witness the account given by Pliny and others of the large Polypus as he terms it, which used to rob the repositories of salt fish on the coasts of Carteia, and which, according to his description, had a head of the size of a cask that would hold fifteen amphoræ; arms measuring thirty feet in length, of such a diameter that a man could hardly clasp one of them, and beset with suckers or fasteners of the size of large basins that would hold four or five gallons apiece. The existence in short of some enormously large species of the Cuttle-Fish tribe in the Indian and northern seas

can hardly be doubted; and though some accounts may have been much exaggerated, yet there is sufficient cause for believing that such species very far surpass all that are generally observable about the coasts of the European seas. A modern naturalist chooses to distinguish this tremendous species by the title of the Colossal Cuttle-Fish, and seems amply disposed to believe all that has been related of its ravages. A northern navigator of the name of *Dens* is said some years ago to have lost three of his men in the African seas, by a monster of this kind, which unexpectedly made its appearance while these men were employed, during a calm, in raking the sides of the vessel. The Colossal Cuttle-Fish seized these men in its arms, and drew them under water, in spite of every effort to preserve them: the thickness of one of the arms which was cut off in the contest was that of a mizen-mast, and the acetabula or suckers of the size of pot-lids.

'But what shall we say to the idea of a modern French naturalist, who is inclined to suppose, that the destruction of the great French ship the Ville de Paris, taken by the English during the American war, together with nine other ships which came to her assistance on seeing her fire signals of distress, was owing, not to the storm which accompanied the disaster, but to a groupe of Colossal Cuttle-Fishes, which happened at that very time to be prowling about the ocean beneath these unfortunate vessels?

'These accounts, whether true or false, naturally recall to our recollection the far-famed monster of the Northern seas, often mentioned in a vague manner under the name of Kraken or Korven. The general tenor of these accounts is, that in some parts of the Northern seas, during the heat of summer, while the sea is perfectly calm, a vast mass, resembling a kind of floating island, about a quarter of a mile in diameter, is seen to rise above the surface: appearing to be covered with a profusion of sea-weeds, corals, and other marine substances. When it is fully risen, it seldom fails to stretch up several enormous arms, of such a height as to equal that of the masts of a ship; and after having continued in this position for some time, it again slowly descends. From the general description thus given of its shape, it has been supposed that it is a species of Sepia or Cuttle-Fish. Linnæus, in the first edition of his work entitled *Fauna Suecica*, as well as in the earlier editions of his Systema Naturæ, seems inclined to admit the existence of this animal, and forms a genus for it under the name of *Microcosmus*.'

The Lecturer's account of the Paper Nautilus is highly interesting and satisfactory, but, unfortunately, too long for transcription. The Pearl Muscle and the Barnacle are also described in a manner which is well calculated to arrest the attention, and to contribute to the entertainment and instruction of the student.—The concluding Lecture, however, will probably be found to be the most uniformly attractive, ince it traces the wonderful economy and singular habits of several of the Vermes, Polypes, Zoophytes, and miscroscopical animals, whose history must prove equally novel and astonishing to a numerous class of readers.

In this department of his labour, we observe that the author is disposed to soften the bloody history of the *Furia infernalis*; and that he refers to Dr. Hagen's medical thesis, in which all the observations relative to it are summed up in a concise manner, and its real existence seemingly well ascertained.

The stupendous labours of the Madrepores, and the other larger corals within the tropical regions, are delineated in conformity with the observations of Dr. Reinhold Forster.

In passing to the consideration of the miscroscopical animalcules, the author not only reprehends the Buffonian hypothesis of organic molecules, but guards his readers against certain popular misapprehensions of the subject:

'After our general survey of the Zoophyte tribe, I shall beg leave to direct your attention to a Class of Animals which, till the latter part of the seventeenth century, had escaped all human attention and investigation, and constituted a kind of invisible world: a series of beings, the structure, powers, and properties of which, are perhaps more astonishing than those of most other animals; yet of such minuteness as, in general, to elude the sharpest sight, unless assisted by glasses. The ancients therefore were totally unacquainted with this class of beings. To them the Mite was made the *ne plus ultra*, or utmost bound of animal minuteness; but the moderns, assisted by the invention of the Microscope, have discovered whole tribes of animals, compared to which even Mites may be considered as a kind of Elephants. These minute beings are chiefly to be observed in fluids of various kinds; and principally in such as have had any animal or vegetable substances infused in them; and for this reason they are often called in modern Zoology by the title of *Animalcula Infusoria* or Infusorial Animalcules. A most extraordinary idea was entertained by the celebrated Count de Buffon, relative to these Animalcules; viz that they were not real animals, but a kind of organic particles or Molecules, which were capable, under certain circumstances, of being formed into animated beings. The experiments of Spallanzani and others have however completely overthrown this chimerical and absurd theory of the Count de Buffon; and indeed one would hardly think it possible for any person of unprejudiced mind, nay one may even add, of common sense, to view the several animalcules in fluids, and at the same time to doubt of their being real animals. Their rapid and various motions; their pursuits of the smaller kinds on which many of the larger prey; their avoiding each other as they swim; the curious and regular structure of their bodies; and their whole appearance, form the most convincing proofs of their real animal nature and life.

'Animalcules, as I before observed, are most frequently found in fluids; but this is a doctrine that has not always been clearly understood, and has been productive of some erroneous ideas in natural history. Some writers, for instance, have asserted that almost every kind of fluid abounded with animalcules; and that wines, and spirits, exhibited legions of them. This, however, is so very far from the truth,

truth, that none are ever to be discovered in inflammable spirits, or in any fermented liquor that has not passed either into the state of vinegar, or that is not grown completely vapid. As almost all extraordinary discoveries are liable, when related by unskilful persons, to have their circumstances exaggerated by additional ornaments, we need not be surprized that this has been the case relative to the History of Microscopic Animalcules. No sooner did the microscopical observations of Leewenhoeck and a few others become pretty generally known, than immediately, as if by a kind of fatality, the animalcular doctrine was carried a great deal too far; and innumerable substances were supposed to swarm with these minute beings, which later and more accurate observations have proved to be totally free from them.'

The genera of animalcules, of which some species are particularized, are *Vorticella*, *Cercaria*, *Trichoda*, *Volvox*, *Vibrio*, *Cyclydium*, and *Monas*.

This work is illustrated and embellished throughout with excellent plates, and is well calculated to furnish some hours of agreeable and elegant recreation: but it is too much abridged, and too unequal in its distribution of notice and neglect, to serve as a regular text-book to the student of Zoology.

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ART. II. *Practical Sermons.* By Abraham Rees, D.D. F.R.S. Editor of the New Cyclopædia. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

NOTWITHSTANDING the prevalence of infidelity on the one hand and of fanaticism on the other, we trust that the number of persons is still considerable, who are capable of receiving pleasure from such an exhibition of christian doctrine and ethics, as is calculated for reflecting and enlightened minds; and to all such readers these discourses will afford a treat of the most gratifying nature. When the long-known and respected editor of the Cyclopædia presented himself before us in the character of a writer of sermons, we expected from *him* views of divine truth which are consonant with the soundest philosophy, duties displayed with clearness and discrimination, the doctrines of the gospel brought home with conviction to the understanding, and religion enforced on the conscience as the most reasonable and dignifying service. In none of these particulars have we been disappointed; since Dr. Rees has here given proofs of his acknowleged intellectual strength and energy, and the cause of virtue and piety was never better supported. If his sermons bear not the "hall-mark" of modern orthodoxy, they are nevertheless evangelical; they

they breathe the spirit of the divine Preacher on the Mount; and they are calculated to produce those effects on the human heart, at which he aimed in the course of his public ministry. Here the power of rational conviction, of love, and of a sound mind prevail. The author is not less animated than argumentative; while the judgment is convinced, the amiable affections of our nature are touched and directed; and while he nerves us to the hardy discipline of self-government, he endeavours to infuse that mutual benevolence which is 'the test of discipleship to Christ.' It is one of the prominent characters of these discourses, that the principles which they inculcate and the practice which they recommend are made immediately to flow from Scripture. The text is not a mere motto, but, being rendered the basis and ground-work of each discussion, is well introduced and never forgotten. The prevailing sentiment of the passage of scripture at the head of each discourse, with its leading corollaries, forcibly strikes the reader; not in a formal way, but with the address of a man who is well versed in modern composition. We shall be expected to give samples to justify so high an encomium, and this part of our duty is not difficult.

Before, however, we proceed to specific notice of the sermons themselves, or to select any quotations from them, we shall present our readers with the author's modest and affecting apology for laying them before the public:

'The following Sermons were transcribed by the Author from his short-hand copies amidst numerous and urgent engagements; and they were committed to the press as they were delivered, without any addition or alteration. The partiality of his friends induced them to request that he would put them in possession of some of those discourses which they had heard from the pulpit; and as he had for many years experienced their candour, he was the less reluctant in complying with their wishes. The Author, however, is not unapprised, that personal considerations may have misled the judgment of those who have long attended his ministry; and he, therefore, presents this specimen of his professional labours with great diffidence to the public. Having been encouraged in those departments of literature and science, to which many years of his life have been devoted, he flatters himself with the hope, that his performances in the discharge of the duties of his profession, which he has always considered as his primary and most important duties, will be candidly received; and that persons, who are accustomed to the perusal of practical discourses on religious and moral subjects, will derive some degree of satisfaction and improvement from those, that now solicit their attention. If this end be answered, the Author will think himself amply compensated for the labour bestowed on transcribing them; and it will give him pleasure to reflect, that the families of his friends will possess this relic of his esteem and respect

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long after death has terminated their mutual connection and intercourse. Beyond this period he directs his views and hopes to a happy reunion, that shall be indissoluble and everlasting.'

A congregation of Protestant Dissenters may be proud of a preacher, whose usual compositions display such solidity and arrangement, and must be flattered by this token of his christian affection, which at once manifests the correctness of their taste and his intellectual and amiable qualities.

Each volume contains 25 discourses; the titles of which, on account of the space which they would occupy, we must excuse ourselves from transcribing: but we shall advert to some of the subjects, hoping that we shall afford, even in our limited survey, sufficient evidence of their merit and general tendency.

By the epithet *practical*, in the title, the reader is apprized that the chief object of the author is not controversial but practical divinity. Though, however, Dr. Rees does not formally enter on difficult points, he no where conceals his opinions. When questions come in his way which have created division in the christian church, and which still remain matters of fierce dispute, he speaks his sentiments with a manly ingenuousness, without acrimony or reviling. In the first sermon, on 'the accomplishment of prophecy in the circumstances attending the introduction and progress of Christianity,' from Is. xl. 22, he deduces in an able manner the signal and extensive triumphs of the gospel, under disadvantages and discouragements of the most depressing nature, as a proof of divine interposition in its favour. Sermons II. and III. treat of 'the observance of the Sabbath, as a permanent memorial of the truth of Christianity,' and of 'the object and nature of Christian worship.' The spirituality of the Divine Nature (John iv. 24. *God is a spirit*, &c.) is discussed in the last of these discourses; and here the preacher furnishes a philosophic objection to what is held by many as a mysterious article of faith, and gives that view of the Deity which requires and justifies spiritual worship. To this kind of devotion, Dr. R. adds, 'we may justly appropriate the denomination of *truth*; the distinguishing character of which is the conformity of principles, dispositions, and actions, to the nature of things, and the relations that subsist between God and man.' Of such a religion, no man of science can be ashamed; and by such a worship, all who feel its power must be advanced in wisdom and in virtue.

We pass over the two sermons on the evidences and practical influence of the Resurrection of Christ, notwithstanding their merit, because we have lately furnished an article on this subject;

subject; and we must also omit any distinct notice of those on 'the reasonableness of Faith,' on 'Christian hope,' on 'mutual Love' and on 'a wounded Spirit,' in order to obtain room for an extract of some length from sermon 9, intitled 'a preservative against mistakes with regard to the nature and efficacy of Repentance;' from Luke xv. 31. Not one of the modern writers, who have treated this topic, has placed it in a clearer light than Dr. Rees:

'Some persons, not duly considering the principal design of this parable of the Prodigal Son, as well as of other passages, that represent, in a manner the most forcible and satisfactory, the placability of God and his readiness to forgive true penitents, have deduced from them a very unwarrantable inference. Not satisfied with the only conclusion that can be justly drawn from such passages; that God is mercifully disposed to pardon repenting sinners; they have represented repentance as more acceptable and pleasing to God than a course of uniform obedience. Because the passions and feelings of penitent transgressors are more sensibly excited; because they produce a more observable effect; because persons in this state are more visibly solicitous to obtain pardon and favour; because their zeal is awakened by a sense of their danger, and by a concern to escape it; and because their change of conduct attracts notice; repentance has been thought more deserving of approbation and praise than the calm, steady, progressive practice of piety and virtue. It has received from the multitude a degree of applause, which has not been commonly bestowed on the conduct of those, who have seldom deviated from the path of duty; who have pursued, with few intermissions and failings, a regular course of unoffending and irreproachable virtue; or who have had, comparatively, no occasion for repentance, or, at least, for any very observable change in their disposition or practice. There are many, I trust, of this character; who, under the influence of religious principles, imbibed in their youth and cherished in maturer years, have been preserved from any very culpable, flagrant, and repeated violation of their duty either to God or man. Although the most blameless and exemplary are subject to failings and imperfections, yet as they are neither wilful nor habitual, the gracious Being, who knows our frame, overlooks and forgives them.

'Repentance, or what has been so called, is sometimes the mere emotion of the animal feelings and passions, produced by the operation of mechanical causes, and subsiding almost as suddenly as it was excited, without any permanent effect either on the judgment or the conduct. By this kind of repentance some persons have been deluded. They have called it conversion, and they have supposed it to be an instantaneous act, proceeding from the irresistible influence of divine grace, and transforming the vilest sinners into saints, and evincing their title through faith in the merits of the Redeemer to pardoning mercy and everlasting salvation. But supposing that there is no misconception or delusion in the case, shall any say, that the repentance of those who have been wilful, deliberate, and continued transgressors, however sincere in its principle and durable in effect, is more

acceptable to God or more beneficial to man than the character which we have just described? Is there no difference of character among sinners themselves, previously to their repentance? Are there no degrees of depravity and vice among transgressors? Is not the conduct of some more aggravated and more atrocious than that of others? Can we imagine that a just and holy God does not perceive or that he does not regard the various gradations of criminality and guilt? Nevertheless we should be apt to imagine, from adverting to the language of some of the most popular preachers, that all sinners are alike in the divine estimation; and that the most culpable and profligate are the most likely to obtain mercy; and that sinners of any class, who repent, are more acceptable to God than the unoffending and virtuous. No notions, whatever sanction they may have received from the delusion of enthusiasm, can be more erroneous or more pernicious. Innocence is undoubtedly preferable to repentance. It is better not to offend than to be sorry for having offended; as it is more desirable never to be ill than to recover from a painful and dangerous disorder. The conduct of those who, in the general course of their lives, avoid the practice of iniquity and maintain an irreproachable character, is unquestionably more pleasing to God and more estimable in the judgment of sober reason than the contrition and good resolution and actual reformation of sincere penitents. When men have neglected their duty and transgressed the divine law, it is their wisdom to repent of their folly and to amend their lives; and they may think themselves happy that they are allowed the privilege of repentance. But they would have been much more wise and more happy, if their conduct had given no occasion for that regret and sorrow, for that anxiety and disquietude, which are inseparable from true repentance; and which in a degree must correspond to the nature and aggravation of their preceding crimes.

'Far be it from me to discourage the hope of any true penitent! and yet it is necessary to guard against the pernicious effects of mistaken notions on this subject. The parable of the prodigal son has led some persons to imagine, that God is better pleased with the return of sinners to their duty, after having long neglected it, than with the continued obedience of those who have never or seldom offended. This erroneous principle has encouraged the presumption of transgressors; flattered them with vain and delusive hopes; induced them to defer repentance to an uncertain futurity; and at the close of a mis-spent life inspired them with a fallacious confidence in the divine mercy and favour. Conceiving that their character and state depend merely on their penitence, and that they shall be equally acceptable in the sight of God with those, who have devoted their lives to his service; they turn a deaf ear to every counsel of religious wisdom, and persist in a course of iniquity, till those awful circumstances occur, in which it will be necessary for them to avert the displeasure and to secure the favour of the Almighty. Repentance in their creed is the whole of religious virtue. This, they suppose, will produce an instantaneous and entire change in their disposition and character; and when danger is inevitable, this will be a safe refuge to which they can recur.

'If

'If there be any fallacy that has multiplied the dreadful hazards of that which has been usually called a death-bed repentance more than any other; that has made men heedless and unconcerned about their conduct in the progress of their lives, and flattered them with the hope of being secure in the final issue; it is this;—a mistaken notion of the nature of true repentance; of the rank that belongs to it in the scale of human duties; of the fruits and effects that ought to accompany it; and of the degree of estimation and value, in which it is regarded by the supreme, impartial, and infallible sovereign and judge. If mere repentance claims the distinguished privilege and benefit, which the negligence and presumption of too many seem to ascribe to it; if it be a refuge so secure, as they apprehend; if it constitute so complete a qualification for divine favour and future felicity, as they imagine; if it may be admitted as a substitute for uniform integrity and virtue and for the exemplary conduct of many years, devoted to piety and holiness; if this be the case, how needless the self-denial! how fruitless the labour! how absurd the practice of those, who *by patient continuance in well doing seek for glory, honour, and immortality!* What *awes* * do the government of God, and the prospect of futurity, furnish to restrain the licentious and wicked! what encouragement do they afford to the pious and obedient! what kind of connection remains between the present character and the future recompence either of the good or wicked! How inconsiderable and how uncertain the benefit derived from education and discipline, and from all the means, which divine wisdom and goodness seem to have provided for the cultivation, and defence, and advancement of our piety and virtue! If mere repentance be supposed to answer every purpose of security and happiness, which the anxious minds of intelligent, accountable, and immortal beings can wish to obtain; if it be considered in any other view than as the commencement of a religious and virtuous conduct, to be justified and perfected by a corresponding temper and practice; if it consist, as too many have imagined, in the unavailing regret and ineffective purposes of a dying hour, destitute of every advantage for evincing its sincerity and for producing a permanent influence on the disposition and character;—we mistake its nature; we misapprehend its importance and utility. The repentance, which God will accept, and which will ultimately avail to the happiness of mankind, derives its value and use from the sentiments, in which it originates, and from the real, visible, permanent change, which it produces in the temper and conduct. And in this view of it, the only view which reason and scripture warrant, it can never be preferred, either in the judgment of God or man, to a constant and persevering obedience:—to an obedience, which, notwithstanding all its interruptions and failings, constitutes the character and will ensure the peculiar and distinguishing tokens of divine favour.

'This important and interesting truth, so encouraging to those, who endeavour through life to maintain an irreproachable and exemplary conduct, is evidently implied in the declaration of the text.

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* The substantive *awe* does not usually admit the plural number.

Son, thou art ever with me, and all that I have is thine. Notwithstanding the strong expressions of sympathy and affection, with which the father received the repenting prodigal, and testified a dispostion to forgive his past errors and tranegressions; he assures his elder son, who had never deserted him; who had never wilfully offended him; that he was the object of his unabated and distinguishing regard.

'The moral instruction suggested by the parable is plainly this; that God is inclined to compassionate and forgive penitent transgressors; but at the same time, the objects of his peculiar favour are the upright and obedient.'

How much good sense is contained in this representation! It appears to us to be clear and satisfactory in the highest degree. Well does Dr. R. observe that as, though recovery from sickness is desirable, and a source of congratulation, yet uninterrupted health is preferable, so it is much better not to sin wilfully and habitually, than to flatter ourselves with the hope that we shall live to repent of our conduct. Alas! vice, during the reign of the passions, has a legion of seductive tempters; and the idea of regaining our lost ground by Repentance is more palatable to the sinner, than exhortations to inflexible virtue, because he thus seems to discover the possibility of obtaining a good share of the pleasures of this world, without renouncing those of the next. Such self-deception ought to be discouraged. To the croud it may be palatable; but preachers in Israel should not afford it countenance.

Let us now advance to the next subject,—'the Omnipresence of God,'—which Dr. Rees thus beautifully illustrates:

'As God is infinitely perfect, he must be every where present. If we set limits to the presence of God, we proportionably degrade his excellence and diminish his perfection. If he does not exist and act every where, he is so far an imperfect being. Besides, if we deny the existence and agency of God in any one place, we may deny that he exists and acts in every other; and, consequently, he does not exist by that kind of necessity of nature, which belongs to the underived and self-existent being. But waving these more abstruse demonstrations of the omnipresence of God; demonstrations, however, that are satisfactory and convincing to those who are accustomed to this kind of reasoning; we may observe, that God *is*, wherever he *acts*; and we perceive traces of the divine agency every where around us. The visible creation is in this sense full of God. There is not a point of space; there is not an atom of matter, which does not bear testimony to the presence and influence of God; and as it is a first principle, that no being can act where it is not, the agency of God, which is universal, must evince his universal presence. Wherever we discern an effect there must be a cause; and of course all the matter and the motion which we observe in the universe constrains us to admit the vital presence and constant energy of the Almighty. Without

out God, the universe would be a chaos. The sun and stars, that gild the firmament by day and by night, would be extinguished. The planetary worlds that move around them in regular order and uninterrupted harmony would cease to move; their arrangement would be disturbed; their mutual influence be suspended; and they would no longer serve any of the beneficial purposes to which they are adapted.

'Life, more especially, in all the varieties and gradations of it, from that of the meanest insect to the highest rank of intelligence; in its continuance and in its succession and renewal; indicates the presence and agency of God. Every living being owes the origin and the permanence of its existence to the Deity; and wherever, therefore, life is produced, sustained, and prolonged, we behold undeniable evidence of his presence and influence. Moreover, as the universe, wherever we are able to extend our views, exhibits displays of counsel and agency, there must be an intelligent agent, wheresoever we see the effects of wisdom and activity.

'But the declarations and discoveries of revelation, with regard to the omnipresence of God, supersede the necessity of every kind of reasoning. The Scriptures abound with very animated and impressive descriptions of this divine attribute: and we need only peruse them, frequently and seriously, in order to awaken in our minds just conceptions of it, and to render the sentiments we thus acquire permanently beneficial. *Whither*, says the Psalmist, *shall I go from thy spirit*, i. e. from thee, *or whither shall I flee from thy presence? If I ascend up into heaven, thou art there; if I make my bed in hell*, or in the grave, *behold, thou art there. If I take the wings of the morning, and dwell in the uttermost parts of the sea, even there shall thy hand lead me; and thy right hand shall hold me. If I say, surely the darkness shall cover me, even the night shall be light about me; yea, the darkness hideth not from thee; but the night shineth as the day. The darkness and the light are both alike to thee.*'

The inferences which the preacher makes from this sublime doctrine are admirable, and his conclusion forcibly applies it.

'Practical Atheism,'—'the stages in the Progress of Vice,' 'the folly and danger of Procrastination,'—'the importance of adapting the Temper to the condition,'—'the benefit of Associating with the Wise and Good,'—and 'the folly and danger of the reverse,'—are topics (with others) in the first volume, on which many excellent observations occur.

Among the interesting subjects of the second volume, we shall specify the following;—'The wisdom and duty of a persevering profession of Christianity,'—'the victory of Faith,'—'the credibility of a Future Life,'—'the gain of Godliness with Contentment,—'the principles of christian Fortitude and Self-possession,—'the unequal distributions of Providence,'—'the excellence of the Human Frame and Faculties,—'a caution against Pride,'—'a meek and placable Temper recommended,'—

and

and 'Sensibility and Sympathy recommended from the Example and Doctrine of Christ.' The subject last mentioned is the title of the IXth sermon, and the sentiments which it contains are as amiable as those in the discourse on 'Unity among Christians' are liberal.

Only one more extract, however, can we admit, and it shall be from the discourse (No. 20) on 'the excellence of the Human Frame and Faculties,' in which Dr. Rees exposes the absurdity of those degrading views of human nature which some preachers display with the most complacent satisfaction; as if they honoured the Deity by vilifying his *chief work in this world*, and prepared Man for great exertion, by telling him that he was "naturally incapable of thinking or doing any thing that was good." We will not assert that this sermon is *the gem of the first water* in the whole collection: but we may safely pronounce it to be throughout truly creditable to the preacher. He contemplates man in his corporeal frame, in his intellectual faculties, in his moral principles, in his social affections, in his capacity for progressive improvement, and in his destination for immortality. We transcribe that portion of it which displays the excellence of our intellectual faculties:

'It is needless now to enter into any discussion concerning the nature of the human soul. Whilst others, however, strenuously contend, that it is no distinct principle of the human frame; that it results from a peculiar organization of matter; and that the doctrine of the soul has been the source of many errors among philosophers and divines: we may be allowed to say, that these assertions are much more easily made than proved; and that both reason and scripture seem to furnish very decisive and satisfactory evidence in favour of the doctrine, which some consider as almost antiquated, and which it is very fashionable to exclude. To me, indeed, the existence of spirit is as easily conceivable as that of matter: and we might as readily dispense with the one as the other. Both are known alike, merely by their properties; their properties are equally discernible; and they seem to be perfectly distinct and indeed incompatible with each other. That the thinking principle should be material is, I confess, a dogma in philosophy, which surpasses my comprehension. That thought, and will, and consciousness should be properties of matter, which is an inert, inactive and divisible mass, itself incapable of beginning, continuing, or changing motion; and that any modification or refinement of matter should produce mental powers and exercises, are propositions, which, however allowed by others, cannot command my assent. Of the existence of one spirit, the source of all being, spiritual or material, and of his action on matter, without any common properties, we are all convinced; and whilst we allow the Deity to be immaterial, many of the difficulties that attend the doctrine of a separate spirit in man are capable of being satisfactorily resolved. But without enlarging in this way, we may observe,

'That the intellectual faculties of man, from whatever source they are derived, constitute the chief dignity of his nature. It is by the powers of his understanding that he claims superiority, and exercises dominion in this lower world. His judgment and imagination and memory and will extend the sphere of his knowlege and intercourse, of his activity and enjoyment, far beyond that of any other creatures on earth. It is by the exercise of the understanding, that man directs, and controuls, and subdues to his own service and use all other inferior animals, however subtle or however strong; and the knowledge he thus acquires is so much actual power augmented by the concurrence and combination of the powers of other creatures, much more mighty than himself. It is by the exercise of the understanding, that man converts the elements of nature, fire, air, and water, and all the productions of the earth, to his own accommodation and enjoyment. This enables him to multiply these means of supply and comfort, by the labour of tillage, by the skill and industry of the artisan and manufacturer, and by the active spirit of commercial intercourse; and when they are acquired and possessed, to provide for their security and defence against the efforts of lawless power, the artifices of fraud, or the more ordinary and more signal vicissitudes and calamities of human life. It is by the exercise of the understanding, that useful arts and sciences are cultivated and promoted:—those sciences and arts that contribute to meliorate the world, to improve the condition of mankind, and to furnish various sources of agreeable amusement, and of refined and rational enjoyment. It is by the exercise of the understanding, that man discovers truth and duty; the principles and obligations of religion; the sanctions and motives of a virtuous conduct; and the means of pursuing and attaining substantial and permanent felicity. In a word, man, by his intellectual faculties, is superior to the brutes: and by the culture and improvement of them, one man is as much superior to another, as the uninstructed barbarian is to his associate of the field or the stall.—It is by the power of the imagination, that we are enabled to admire and enjoy whatever is sublime or beautiful in the works of nature or in the productions of art.—It is by the faculty of memory, that we deduce instruction and entertainment from the records of history and from the review of past events; and that we are enabled to derive useful lessons for the conduct of life, and for the attainment of happiness, from our own observation and experience, or from the experience and observation of others in past ages, and in circumstances similar to our own.—It is by that power which we possess of anticipating futurity, that we can, in many cases, avoid evil and secure good; and that we are able to increase the amount of our present felicity by the hope and prospect of future enjoyment.—It is by that direction and controul, with respect to our own volitions and actions, with which the creator has endowed us, that we become moral and accountable beings; capable of religion and virtue; fit subjects of the moral government of God; responsible for our conduct; self approved in a course of integrity and holy obedience; and meet for obtaining the approbation and applause of our supreme judge in a state of retribution.

'Such

'Such, then, is the dignity attached to our intellectual nature. Such are the honours and prerogatives connected with the mental faculties which God has given us. Such are the benefits and pleasures, which we derive from the cultivation and exercise of which they are capable. It behoves us, therefore, in the contemplation of our intelligent nature, to acknowledge with devout gratitude: *thou, O Lord, hast crowned us with glory and honour.*

'In the survey of our frame, the moral principles, with which we are endowed, merit a distinct consideration. Some portion of intellect has been conceded to brutes; but they possess it in a very low degree and without a corresponding capacity of cultivation and improvement. The grand and discriminating difference, which some have established between brutes and human beings, is that which consists in those moral and religious principles, that pertain, not only by way of eminence, but solely and exclusively to the latter. Man alone possesses that degree of understanding and that portion of knowledge which render him capable of religion; and which make him accountable for his conduct. Accordingly his creator has endowed him with those powers and principles, with that sense of good and evil, of honour and shame, of praise and reproach; and with those affections of hope and fear, in the review of his conduct and in the anticipation of its consequences, which evince him to be moral and accountable; and which lay the foundation for those expectations and prospects which divine revelation and the doctrine of the gospel in particular lead him to entertain. The knowledge of the attributes, character, and government of God; of the duties we owe him, and a capacity of performing those duties; a regard to his authority and law, and to his right of prescribing to our conduct; the hope of his approbation and favour, and the dread of his displeasure; and a view to future judgment and retribution, are principles which pertain to man; and they advance him to that rank of intelligence, which is but a *little lower than that of angels.*'

In such a view of the nature of the human constitution, as being crowned with glory and honour, exhortations to piety and virtue have a peculiar fitness. Man thus endowed is a Being formed for the duties of religion, and for the fruition of the bliss which religion promises hereafter.

It is a defect in the printing of these volumes, that in the contents we are not referred to the page in which each sermon commences, and that no marginal numeration occurs. Mo-y.

ART. III. *An Essay on Hydrocephalus Acutus,* or Dropsy in the Brain. By John Cheyne, M.D. 8vo. pp. 218. 8s. Boards. Murray.

THE disease of which this volume treats is so rapid in its progress, so fatal in its tendency, and so liable to be mistaken for other affections, which, though resembling it in many leading symptoms, possess a totally different origin,

that we cannot but peruse with great satisfaction any attempt to render us more familiar with its phænomena, and particularly with those of its early stages. Dr. Cheyne professes to write from experience, and his work contains within itself strong evidence of the fact. He informs us that the cases which he details 'are not recollections; nor were they ever in danger of being altered, or even coloured by any prevailing or favourite doctrine. They were invariably drawn up in the bed-chamber of the patient, and present a faithful account of every symptom and circumstance that attended the disease. They may, perhaps, appear to others to authorize conclusions different from what I have drawn: my reasoning may be wrong, but my facts may be implicitly relied on.'

After some remarks on the name of the disease, and on the difficulty which has always subsisted in composing a distinct account of it, the author endeavours to remove or to diminish this difficulty, by proposing a new arrangement of its several forms, concerning the value of which he expresses himself with much confidence, as being neither 'artificial nor arbitrary.' According to this new arrangement the malady is divided into three species, each of which he then attempts to delineate. The first supplies an accurate representation of the disease in the form in which it usually occurs; the 2d. seems to differ from the first only in being more rapid in its progress, and more violent in some of its symptoms; and the 3d. consists of those cases which have been immediately preceded by some other complaint, and which Dr. Cheyne considers 'as an instance of that conversion of diseases, which arises either from the excess or combination of the symptoms of the original complaint, operating upon a habit favourable to the new disorder, or perhaps from the state of the habit produced by the primary giving rise to the consequential disease.' We must confess our doubts respecting both the grounds of this new arrangement and its utility. The first two species, as far as we can perceive, have no diagnostic symptoms, and differ only in degree; so that it must depend entirely on the individual fancy or feelings of every practitioner to determine, whether each case should be placed in the 1st. or the 2d. class, and should be regarded as a mild or a severe instance of the disease. The third species indeed exhibits more variety, at least as far as the previous history is concerned; and this, as throwing light on the constitution of the patient, and as enabling us to judge what may be the effect of particular remedies, is a matter to which we ought always to attend. Beyond it, however, we should not be disposed to follow the author: but, as it is a point to which

he seems to attach considerable importance, we shall let him speak for himself:

'When hydrocephalus arises after an imperfect state of health, as where there had been a scrophulous action which has abated; or where, from predisposition and the anomalism of the symptoms, such action is looked for; or where the child has had some epidemic disease formerly (perhaps many months before,) from which he has not perfectly recovered, or regained sound health; the attack is sometimes made with all the violence which I have described as distinguishing the second form. When, again, the attack comes as the sequel of an acute disease, as fever, hooping-cough, perhaps dentition, or during some actually existing scrophulous disease, then the child almost imperceptibly slips into Hydrocephalus; there are scarcely any of the acute symptoms; and the palsies or convulsions are the first indications of the new disorder.'

Besides this new arrangement of the species of hydrocephalus, Dr. Cheyne adopts an opinion that is to a certain extent novel, respecting the three stages into which the disease was divided by Dr. Whytt, as depending on the changes that are observable in the state of the pulse. These successive changes, first from increased quickness to an unusual degree of slowness, and lastly the return to an increased velocity, may be considered as the regular course of the disease, when it exists in its most exquisite form: but, as the author remarks, the student will be disappointed if he expects them to follow each other in a regular progress. However, admitting that they are present when the disease assumes its complete character, Dr. Cheyne thinks that it is useful to attend to them, as indicating the alterations which are produced in the nervous system; and, attributing them entirely to this source, he designates them under the following titles; 1st. the stage of increased sensibility, 2d. the stage of decreased sensibility, and 3d. the paralytic or convulsed stage. To this new nomenclature, objections may be made, both as to its accuracy and as to its practical utility. We are not prepared to assent to the supposition that the nervous system is the primary or chief seat of disease, at least in the first stage; and consequently we must object to the malady being ascribed to an increase of sensibility. We likewise demur to the title of *convulsive stage*, as applied to the termination of the complaint, since it would intimate that convulsions occur only at the termination.

We have dwelt thus long on Dr. C.'s preliminary matter, not that we deem it the most important part of his work, but because it contains some new views of the disease; and because, how much soever he may profess to diregard hypo-

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We have dwelt thus long on Dr. C.'s preliminary matter, not that we deem it the most important part of his work, but because it contains some new views of the disease; and because, how much soever he may profess to diregard hypo-

thesis, we think that he has not altogether preserved himself from being influenced by it. This is an unfortunate circumstance, not merely from the general fact that medical hypothesis is seldom of much *immediate* advantage in regulating our practice, but because this volume contains so much of what must be regarded as the result of observation, that the reader might be led to suppose that the whole of the remarks are ultimately derived from this source.

In the descriptive parts, we have every reason to be satisfied with the accuracy of our guide. A considerable share of the merit of Dr. Cheyne's performance depends on the history which he gives of the constitution of his patients, and the state of their health previously to the immediate attack of hydrocephalus. Information of this kind is always valuable, and in this case particularly useful. Every circumstance respecting hydrocephalus tends to prove, that it can only be successfully combated by opposing it in its commencement; while, by an attention to the nature of the constitutions which are obnoxious to its attacks, we may perhaps entirely prevent its occurrence. The author is anxious to establish the connection between hydrocephalus and scrophula: the former, he says, 'chiefly falls upon the children of families having a strumous taint; at least upon children having those peculiarities of skin, complexion, and features which indicate scrophula; and sometimes it attaches itself to particular families. I have attended two families, in one of which four children, in the other three, died of this disease; and I have heard of an unfortunate father who lost eleven children *of* (by) hydrocephalus.' He afterward adds; 'I can affirm, from extensive and careful observation, that not only are children in whom scrophula is active very liable to hydrocephalus, but conversely, that all the symptoms of hydrocephalus are sometimes exchanged for a scrophulous disease.' We are glad to see this opinion so clearly brought into view; observation will easily decide the point; and, if once proved, it will lead to important practical consequences. We confess that, at present, we are scarcely prepared to coincide with the author: but we forbear to say more on this subject, because our experience has not been hitherto directed to it with that minuteness which, we are persuaded, has been bestowed on it by Dr. Cheyne.

Another circumstance, which the author is anxious to establish, and which (like the last) must tend to important practical results, is the connection between hydrocephalus and the peculiar state of the abdominal viscera. That in hydrocephalus the bowels are uncommonly torpid, and that the evacuations generally exhibit an unnatural appearance, are

facts

facts which did not escape the observation of the first writers on this disease; and the sagacious mind of Dr. Hamilton has been peculiarly occupied on this point. Dr. Cheyne has, however, insisted still more strongly on the connection between the diseased states of the abdominal viscera and the brain; and indeed he seems to regard them as standing to each other in the relation of cause and effect. This circumstance, like the one mentioned above, may be easily established or controverted by future observation, and will also materially influence our practice.

In order to enable our readers to judge of the author's talent for description, we lay before them his account of the appearances exhibited on dissection, both of the brain and of the abdominal viscera;

'Upon dissection, we generally find within the cranium, the veins, particularly those of the membranes on the surface of the brain and lining of the ventricles, gorged with dark coloured blood; sometimes considerable adhesion between and thickening of the membranes, and minute and florid vessels upon the pia mater. The ventricles we find to contain from two to six ounces of limpid serum; also fluid, in a small quantity, under the tunica arachnoides, both above and at the base of the brain. The substance of the brain is generally soft and blanched, fimbriated, and particularly soft where it forms the ventricles. The substance of the fornix is often like a soft curd. In the abdomen, I have found the intestines inflamed and constricted from spasm, and the surface of the liver of a bright red colour, abounding in minute vessels; and sometimes extensively adhering to the peritoneum. In several dissections, I have found the surface of the liver studded with small white tubercles, not larger than a grain of mustard. The glands of the mesentery are often diseased, as is evinced by their enlargement, and the caseous depositions which we find in the substance of the glands.'

The diagnosis of hydrocephalus has been generally considered as peculiarly difficult, and it is a subject on which Dr. Cheyne bestows considerable attention. From the remittent fever of infants, it is distinguished by the complete and regular intermissions which take place in this latter disease: but it appears less easy to discriminate between hydrocephalus and the state which is induced by a disorder of the digestive organs. Perhaps it is not possible to lay down any decisive marks, by which we may be assured whether the primary symptoms proceed from an affection of the brain, or from that of the alimentary canal. Dr. C. indeed supposes the existence of such a direct sympathy between these parts, that a disease which originates in the bowels may be transferred or communicated to the brain, so as to form the complete hydrocephalic state. He gives his reasons for this opinion at full

length; and they appear so plausible, that we trust the subject will be carefully followed up by succeeding observers.

Dr. C. next enters into a disquisition respecting the pathology of the disease. He freely controverts the opinions of Whytt and Fothergill, that it was nothing more than a dropsy of the brain; and also that of Darwin, who considers it as a disease of the lymphatics. He next discusses the merit of Dr. Quin's hypothesis, which is at present very generally adopted, that the effusion of water into the ventricles of the brain is the effect of a previous morbid accumulation of blood in the vessels, sometimes proceeding to a degree of inflammation. This hypothesis Dr. Cheyne endeavours to overthrow: but we confess that we do not see much force in his objections; nor do we think that the theory which he substitutes for it is in any respect preferable:

'In this disease, (he says) there is produced a venous congestion, in addition to, and probably arising from, the increased arterial action: that the effusion of serous fluid arises from this venous congestion: that this effusion has a tendency to counteract the baleful effects of the increased action, and to retard the fatal termination of the disease; of course that the effusion into the ventricles is not the cause of the violent symptoms; and that the increased arterial action, though perhaps varied, does not cease when the congestion and effusion have taken place.'

Dr. Cheyne appears to us more successful in combating the opinion proposed by Dr. Rush, that hydrocephalus is only a less degree of phrenitis: the parallel which is drawn between the two is judicious; and it proves decidedly an essential difference between them.

The indications of cure, which the author points out, strike us as too numerous and indistinct: they essentially consist in the removal of every irritation which may act by sympathy on the brain, in diminishing the increased circulation within the head, and in substituting a new action of the vessels. The purgative plan of course constitutes the first and perhaps the most important part of the treatment; it must be pursued with steadiness; and it may be carried to a great length without inducing debility. After our attempts to bring the alimentary canal into a proper state, we are to direct our attention more immediately to the head; topical bleeding and blisters are then adopted; and the constitutional operation of mercury is strongly enforced. The principal novelty of the treatment consists in the extent to which purgatives are carried.

This volume concludes with a number of cases, which are arranged according to the three species into which the author divides

divides the disease. They are detailed with much minuteness, and are particularly valuable on account of the attention which is paid to the previous history of the patients: indeed, this part constitutes the great merit of the work, since we were already in possession of abundance of cases of the fully formed disease. Although we are disposed to differ from the author on some points which he regards as important, we have a very favourable opinion of his performance; and we recommend it as containing a body of useful information, and as immediately tending to perfect our knowlege of the treatment of the malady to which it relates.

Bos.

ART. IV. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Sussex.* Drawn up for the Board of Agriculture and general Improvement. By the Rev. Arthur Young. 8vo. pp. 471. 14s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1808.

FROM a reporter of the agricultural state of an English county, some information may fairly be expected concerning the means which he has employed to qualify himself for the task, the time which he has occupied in the survey, the assistance which he has obtained from previous statements, and the aids of other kinds with which he has been favoured. Nothing of this sort, however, is communicated in the present instance; nor is the work introduced by any prefatory matter. We should have been glad to have found that an accurate admeasurement of the county had accompanied a patient survey; and that a map of Sussex, worthy of the Board of Agriculture, had illustrated its geology: but we are disappointed in all these respects; though in point of plates representing barns and barn-floors, waggons, ploughs, harrows, weed-extirpators, farm-yards, piggeries, poor-houses, cattle, &c. we are well supplied, the number being 21.

The arrangement of materials is similar in this volume to that of all the other county-surveys; and the task which now devolves on us therefore resembles that which works of the same nature have formerly imposed. Minutely to specify the various information, given in the several chapters and subdivisions, would force us to a prolixity which is incompatible with our multifarious engagements: we must consequently request the reader to be satisfied with a few of the most interesting specimens; and the first in this view is that part of the Report which details the geographical state and circumstances of the county.

'Sussex is a maritime county, bounded on the west by Hampshire, on the north by Surrey, on the north-east and east by Kent, and on the south by the British Channel.

'It contains, according to the mensuration in Templeman's Tables, 1416 square miles, and 1,140,000 acres: the extent, by the same authority, is 65 miles, and the breadth 26. But, according to this calculation, the real length is considerably under-rated, whilst the breadth is increased; which we find to be the case by later, and more accurate surveys. Another calculation reduces the number of acres to 908,952; both of which are confessedly erroneous.

'The length of this county, as measured from Emsworth to Kent-ditch, extends 76 miles, and the medium breadth falls short of 20. The superficial contents amount to 933,360, and each parish averages 2982 acres.

'The artificial divisions of the county are comprehended in six rapes: those of Chichester, Arundel, and Bramber, form the western division, and in which the quarter-sessions are held at Chichester, Midhurst, Petworth, and Horsham; Lewes, Pevensey, and Hastings rapes, form the eastern quarter of the county, for which the quarter-sessions are always held at Lewes. The number of parishes in the county are 313.

'The climate in the western part of the maritime district is very warm, and highly favourable to the powers of vegetation. But upon the bleak situation of the South Down hills, exposed to the south-west, the winds have been known to strip the thatch off corn-stacks, and the covering from all the thatched buildings; and it has sometimes happened, that farmers have suffered considerable losses by the violence of these westerly gales in harvest, blowing the standing corn out of the ear, and doing other damage. When impregnated with saline particles, occasioned by the west and south-west winds beating the spray against the beach, all the hedges and trees on the windward side are destroyed, and, generally speaking, the foliage wears the aspect of its wintry dress. The hedges seem to be cut by the spray, as if it were artificially; and in very exposed situations it penetrates the houses, though built with brick, even at a considerable distance from the coast. The consequence of this has been, that the greatest part of the buildings in the district are situated in hollow protected situations, in order to shelter them from these distressing consequences.

'The investigation of the nature and properties of the varieties of soil, in this or any other county, so as accurately to chalk out the line where one soil ends and another begins, can be thoroughly made only by those who have a most exact and intimate knowledge of the county. In attempting to give the Board this information, it appeared that the variations would be more clearly traced out, and more accurately defined, by a map of the soil, than any other mode that could be adopted; sensible, however, at the same time, that it will be but imperfect, and liable to errors which are unavoidable.

'The different soils of chalk, clay, sand, loam, and gravel, are found in this county.

'The

'The first is nearly the universal soil of the South Down hills; the second, in general, of the Weald; the third principally occupies the north side of the county; the fourth is found on the south side of the hills; and the last lies between the rich loam of the coast and the chalk.

'The soil of the South Downs varies according to its situation. On the summit is usually found (more especially in the eastern parts) a very sleet earth; the substratum chalk, and over that a surface of chalk rubble, covered with a light stratum of vegetable calcareous mould. Sometimes along the summit of the Downs there is merely a covering of flints, upon which the turf spontaneously grows. Advancing down the hills, the soil becomes of a deeper staple, and at the bottom is every where a surface of very good depth for ploughing. Here the loam is excellent, nine or ten inches in depth, and the chalk hardish and broken, and mixed with loam in the interstices, to the depth of some feet, which must make it admirable land for sainfoin.

'West of the river Arun, the soil above the chalk is very gravelly, intermixed with large flints. Between the rivers Adur and Ouse, a substratum of reddish sand is discovered; the usual depth of the soil above the chalk, varies in almost every acre of land, from one inch to a foot. The general average between Eastbourne and Shoreham, does not exceed five inches. West of Shoreham the staple is deeper, and between Arundel and Hampshire the soil is deeper still.

'At the northern extremity of these chalk hills, and usually extending the same length as the Downs, is a slip of very rich and stiff arable land, but of very inconsiderable breadth: it runs for some distance into the vale, before it meets the clay.

'South of these hills is an extensive arable vale of singular fertility. This maritime district, extending from Brighthelmstone to Emsworth, 36 miles, is at first of a very trifling breadth, between Brighton and Shoreham. The nature of this soil, which is probably equal to any in the kingdom, is a rich loam, either upon a reddish brick earth, or gravel; the general depth of the upper soil varying from ten to sixteen inches.

'Between this maritime district and the South Downs runs a vein of land, not equal to the foregoing in richness, but admirable land for the turnip husbandry.

'In the line from Chichester to Emsworth, north of the road, we meet with the same kind land for turnips and barley.

'The soil of the Weald is generally a very stiff loam upon a brick clay bottom, and that again upon sand-stone. Upon the range of hills running through the county in a north-west direction, the soil is different. It is here either sandy loam upon a sandy grit-stone, or it is a very poor black vegetable sand on a soft clay marl. A great proportion of these hills is nothing better than the poorest barren sand. St. Leonard's Forest contains 10,000 acres of it, and Ashdown 18,000 more, besides many thousand acres more in various other parts of the county.

'So predominant is the timber and wood of one sort or another in the Weald, that when viewed from the South Downs, or any eminence

nence in the neighbourhood, it presents to the eye hardly any other prospect but a mass of wood. This is to be ascribed to the great extent and quantity of wood; preserved by a custom of a nature so extraordinary, that it is not a little surprising no steps have been taken to put an end to it.

'Besides the soils already treated of, there is a large tract of marsh land adjacent to the sea-coast between the eastern extremity of the South Downs and Kent. The soil is a composition of rotten vegetables, intermixed with sand and other matter, collected from the floods and filth which settle on the surface. In Lewes Level this vegetable mould is at least twelve inches in thickness.

'In Pevensey Level it is many feet deep, and under it is a very heavy black silt, intermixed with various sorts of shells. Water-logs, stumps of trees, and timber, have been dug from Pevensey Level; trees, each containing one load, cubic measure, have been taken from Lewes marshes.'

These passages contain a tolerable account of the surface of the county; to which we may add, under the head of Minerals, that Sussex produces ordinary limestone, marble of a beautiful kind, called Petworth marble, iron-stone, with chalk, marl, and fuller's earth. Its rivers are not considerable: but the chief are the Ouse, the Adur, and the Arun.

The chapter on the *State of Property* is very short. It informs us that the largest estate does not exceed 7500l. a year; and it pays a merited compliment to the spirited and scientific exertions of the Earl of Egremont and of Lord Sheffield, in the line of agricultural improvement. We read not only of seats of the nobility and gentry, but of the comfortable cottages of the poor; who are said to be in more eligible circumstances in Sussex, than in many other parts of England, though this account does not altogether tally with subsequent statements.

Under the head of *Mode of Occupancy*, the size of farms in this county is given; and Mr. Young discusses the question respecting the policy of encouraging small in preference to large farms, deciding in favour of the latter as productive of more food for man. Small holdings, he contends, are injurious to the occupiers, cause more horses to be kept than are necessary, and leave a less surplus to be brought to market. Yet he is not desirous of seeing only large occupiers, but justly remarks that, 'without doubt, the wisest measure is to leave the size of farms to find their own level, unshackled by laws, unlimited in extent, for capitals of all sorts to find employment.'

The following Table, exhibiting a statement of the rent, produce, and division of land in the county of Sussex, is an useful document;

'Down

	Acres.			*£.*		*£.*
Down Land,	68,000	at 7*s.*	is	23,800	at 3 rents	71,400
Rich arable,	100,000	— 20*s.*	—	100,000	— 5 —	500,000
Marsh,	30,000	— 25*s.*	—	37,500	— 2½ —	75,000
Waste,	110,000	— 1*s.* 6*d.*	—	8250	— 1½ —	12,375
Arable and pasture in the Weald,	425,000	— 12*s.*	—	255,000	— 3 —	765,000
Woods, &c.	170,000	— 8*s.*	—	68,000	— 2 —	136,000
	903,000			£ 492,550		£ 1,559,775

'The remainder is composed of water, roads, buildings, &c.; so that the general rent is 492,500*l.* or 10*s.* per acre, including all sorts of land; and the produce 1,559,775*l.*'

We pass over Mr. Young's remarks on Tithes, though they are liberal, in order to advert to a still more interesting subject, viz. the Poor-rates:

'The rates for the maintenance of the poor in Sussex, collectively taken, are not comparatively so high as in other counties where manufactures prevail. But the increase of them in almost every district of the kingdom is truly alarming, and operates as a most discouraging check to agricultural exertion, at a time when the comforts accruing to the poor are inversely as the increase of rates. From an inspection of the rate-books in various parts of the county, it establishes the fact, of a considerable increase having almost invariably arisen. Until gentlemen of liberal education and independent fortune, in their respective parishes, attend more closely to the concerns of the poor, they may surely be said to connive at the evil. But this burthen, so alarming in its magnitude, and so distressing in its consequences, lies deeper than this. The system of the poor-laws perhaps needs revision, before any radical remedy will succeed. It is a growing evil, which should be timely curbed by legislative interference. Temporary laws enacted upon the spur of the moment, for the purpose of warding off present inconveniences, and removing the evil day out of sight, cannot fail of proving unsuccessful. By the multiplication of acts, difficulties are entailed, the whole system becomes complex, and the execution sometimes impracticable.'

No doubt, the system is radically defective; and the very charity which many persons affect towards the poor originates in a motive not rightly appreciated. It is better to prevent poverty than first to create it and then to provide for it. An honest labourer does not merit to be ranked among objects of charity; and by paying him for labour, partly in the form of wages and partly in the shape of a donation issuing out of the poor-rates, we proceed in a disingenuous mode of treating him, which by degrees forces him to all the low tricks of the professed pauper. While, however, our present miserable

plan

plan of poor-management continues, the spirited exertions of gentlemen may effect considerable good: but alas! gentlemen are soon discouraged by the insults which they receive at common parochial vestries; and, unable to brook affronts from persons who are beneath them, they retire from the contest, leaving interested individuals to manage the concerns of the parish to their own advantage.

In the chapter on *Inclosures*, the Reporter strongly condemns the prevalent custom of the Sussex *shaws*, or of surrounding the fields appropriated to the growth of corn by broad sylvan belts.

A great variety of objects occur in the chapters on *Arable and Pasture Lands:* but the notices in most instances are not new; and the few topics which we can specify will be sufficient for our purpose. An indirect compliment seems to be paid to the Sussex farmers as singularly erudite; since, under the head of *feeding*, Mr. Young lectures them in Greek, without affronting them by a translation.

'The custom of feeding the young wheat is practised in various parts of Sussex. Upon the rich arable vale upon the coast, sheep are turned into the wheat from Christmas to March. Many farmers have thought that the wheats are the stiffer, and rise more abundant for this practice. The truth appears to be, that this is done not so much to benefit the wheat, as through mere necessity; since it is allowed, that in proportion to the scarcity of turnips, and other artificial food, will this practice be in vogue. Εν δε ταῖς αγαθαῖς χώραις προς' τὸ μὴ φυλλομανεῖν επινέμεσι καὶ επικείρεσι τον σιτον.

'Meadow and pasture, in various parts of Sussex, is so small in quantity, that it requires a greater abundance of artificial provision, and brought into cultivation in a different rotation, to keep sheep in much greater numbers; and we see, that to feed the present stock, is sometimes found to be a matter of no small difficulty, and highly hazardous: so that the resort of the farmer is to turn his sheep upon his wheat, which at best is a measure of questionable policy. Sheep are often turned into the wheat to tread and bind it, and give the soil a cohesion grateful to that plant.'

Mr. Y. offers no remark on the importance of securing the wheat, after it is cut and shocked, from the effects of heavy and continued rains, in the manner which is practised in the Northern counties: but he recommends the use of the Thrashing Machine, as obtaining one pint and a half more from every truss of straw than is acquired by the use of the flail. This saving on large farms must be considerable; and other reasons may also be urged in favour of this clean working and expeditious machine; but it can never be adopted by the small farmer.

We find a section on the *Manufacture of Bread*, which contains the following recipe for making a substitute for Yeast:

'Three pounds of potatoes put into three pints of water, boiled till it becomes a mash, then taken off the fire, and the liquor and potatoes strained through a cullender: one pint, or rather more, of milk is then mixed with it, and left to ferment, and this quantity is sufficient for a bushel of flour.'

Among the crops not usually cultivated, *Rhubarb*, and the *Papaver somniferum*, are mentioned; and as being curiosities we shall extract the sections:

'The Earl of Egremont cultivates the *Rheum palmatum* for medicinal uses, and has it dried and cured in as good order and preservation, as any imported from abroad. It is taken out of the ground in autumn, after standing seven or eight years; it is then washed of the dirt, and dried, either in the sun, or laid over the flues in the hot-houses, after having been cut into pieces. Mr. Andre, the domestic surgeon and apothecary, uses no other, and finds no difference between this and the foreign. A considerable saving might be made in the importation of *rhubarb*, if others cultivated it for like purposes.

'Opium.—The largest quantity of this invaluable drug that was ever cured in this country, was raised in 1797 from the Earl of Egremont's garden at Petworth; and the fact now indeed thoroughly ascertained, that all the foreign opium is highly adulterated, renders it an object of immense consequence to encourage the domestic growth. Mr. Andre is convinced, that in all his practice, he never made use of any of this drug that could be compared with this. The operation of collecting the produce, is effected by a gentle incision on the heads, as they grow, with a knife or other sharp instrument, which is frequently repeated; and the juices which exude from the wound, are scraped into an earthen vessel, dried by the sun, and preserved for use.'

A letter communicated by Lord Egremont to the Reporter recommends, at the time of stacking *Hay*, to sprinkle the layers of the rick with *linseed oil*, in the proportion of one quart to a ton; which is said to render the hay 'very moist and clammy,' and to fatten cattle and sheep very fast, but not to be good for horses.

To a nation which is celebrated for maritime strength, and whose "wooden walls" are its chief defence, a brief extract relative to the Woods of Sussex cannot be unacceptable:

'The quantity of land cannot be estimated at less than 170 or 180,000 acres; and the quality of the oak-timber may be collected from the circumstance of the Navy-contractors preferring it in all their agreements, and stipulating for Sussex, before every other species of oak. The reigning feature of the Weald is its timber, in which it is enveloped, and overspreads it in every direction, flourishing

ing with great luxuriance, and so naturally adapted to the soil, that if a field were sown with furze only, and live-stock excluded, the ground in the course of a few years would be covered with young oaks, without any trouble or expence of planting.

'Before the Norman Conquest, this part of the kingdom was one continued forest, extending from Hampshire into Kent; and the number of parishes ending with the Saxon word, *hurst*, or wood, are a strong presumption, that they were first cleared and cultivated by settlers from that nation. In the neighbourhood of Salehurst we find no less than eight adjoining parishes ending with this word. At the Conquest, these woods were valued, not by the quantity of timber, but by the number of swine which the acorns maintained.'

We doubt whether Mr. Young is justified in his assertion at the end of this chapter, that 'the Sussex woods, under proper management, would more than supply the whole Royal Navy.'

It will be sufficient to state, respecting the chapter on *Improvements*, that it contains observations on Draining, Paring and Burning, Weeding, and Watering Meadows, with a long list of Manures.

The article of *Live Stock* makes a very respectable figure in this volume. Two plates represent *Mercury*, a Sussex bull, and *Fair Maid*, a Sussex cow; and two others exhibit a South down ram and ewe, all in the possession of Mr. Ellman, of Glynd. As the Reporter classes the Sussex red breed of cattle among the best in the kingdom, it may not be amiss to insert a description of a thorough-bred Sussex Ox:

'A thin head, and clean jaw; the horns point forward a little, and then turn upward, thin tapering, and long; the eye large and full; the throat clean, no dew-lap; long and thin in the neck; wide and deep in the shoulders; no projection in the point of the shoulder, when looked at from behind; the fore-legs wide; round and straight in the barrel, and free from a rising back-bone; no hanging heaviness in the belly; wide across the loin; the space between the hip-bone and the first rib very small; the hip-bone not to rise high, but to be large and wide; the loin, and space between the hips, to be flat and wide, but the fore-part of the carcase round; long and straight in the rump, and wide in the tip; the tail to lay (lie) low, for the flesh to swell above it; the legs not too long, neither thick nor thin on the thigh; the leg thin; *shut well in the twist*; no fulness in the outside of the thigh, but all of it within; a squareness behind, common in all long-horned beasts, greatly objected to; the finer and thinner in the tail the better. Of these points, the Sussex beasts are apt to be more deficient in the shoulder than in any other part.'

Stall-feeding is recommended, on good principles: but Potatoes, either boiled or raw, are reprobated as food for Cows.

On the subject of working Oxen and Horses, a very important remark occurs:

'Mr.

'Mr Pennington conceives the system of working, only to be profitable whilst the growth of the ox nearly pays for the keeping, and that it cannot do when the ox is hard-worked. He thinks that, in the nature of the ox, there are qualities opposite to quick or severe labour; for when the ox is driven beyond his strength or wind, he is rendered unfit for work for a great length of time, and even frequently falls a sacrifice to the exertions of a single hour. When he is brought low in flesh, no art or food will speedily put him into condition. He thinks also, that as the horse is otherwise formed, he will bear the extreme of heat and cold, most frequently without injury, and if brought low by labour, will in a short time, with attention and proper food, recover his flesh.'

These are material facts, which should have their weight in the controversy on this question.

Many pages are occupied on the Sussex breed of sheep: but, as the characters and properties of the South-downers are known to most farmers, and as the details on breed, management, and profit, branch out into various subdivisions, we must refer those to the work itself who are solicitous of information. We pass over other articles of live stock, to notice the section on *Pond-Fish*; which, however unworthy of attention in most other countries as an object of profit, are of some consequence in Sussex:

'The ponds in the Weald are innumerable; and numbers of them date their origin from that part of the county having once been the seat of an extensive iron manufactory, which has now deserted the country; and the mill-ponds now raise large quantities of fish. A Mr. Fenn, of London, has long rented, and is the sole monopolizer of all the fish that are sold in Sussex. Carp is the chief stock; but tench and perch, eels and pike, are raised. A stream should always flow through the pond; and a marley soil is the best. Mr. Milward has drawn carp from his marl-pits 25lb. a brace, and two inches of fat upon them, but then he feeds with pease. When the waters are drawn off and re-stocked, it is done with stores of a year old, which remain four years: the carp will then be 12 or 13 inches long, and if the water is good, 14 or 15. The usual season for drawing the water, is either autumn or spring: the sale is regulated by measure, from the eye to the fork of the tail. At 12 inches, carp are worth 50*s.* and 3*l.* per hundred; at 15 inches, 6*l.*; at 18 inches, 8*l.* and 9*l.*: a hundred stores will stock an acre; or 35 brace, 10 or 12 inches long, are fully sufficient for a breeding pond. The first year they will be three inches long; second year, 7; third year, 11 or 12; fourth year, 14 or 15. This year they breed.

'Mr. Biddulph has, in Burton-park, a fine reach of water, which yields carp, tench, perch, pike, &c. in great abundance; and as it is an extensive pond, I shall insert some account of the produce.

'March 10, 1789. Number of fish taken out of the Mill-pond, of 50 acres.

Carp,	1517
Tench,	473
Pike,	806
Perch,	50
	2846'

In the chapters on *Rural Economy*, we meet with a table of the prices of labour, judicious remarks on the inadequacy of the wages of agricultural labour to the present high rate of provisions, and some hints on the saving of fuel in cottages: but we think that the reporter has been *hummed* with an account of *a leg of mutton and turnips* boiled in a wooden pail, by means of the tube of a fowling piece inserted at the muzzle in the pail. Such a boiling apparatus surpasses all the experiments of Count Rumford.

Political Economy, as connected with agriculture, embraces the usual subjects of Roads, Canals, Fairs, Manufactures, Poor, and Population. Here Mr. Young resumes the consideration of the actual state of the labouring poor, and affords such a picture as no Christian can contemplate but with painful feelings. He sets out with observing that

'The present state of this class of people is in many parts of England inferior to what every humane person would wish, and much below that condition which they may reasonably expect in so wealthy a community. Too many of their houses are the residence of filth and vermin; their dress insufficient; their minds uneducated, uninstructed; and their children, from insufficiency of earnings, trained to vice; their daughters to follow the easy road to prostitution, and too many of them at last to become injurious, instead of a blessing. Give each man an interest, a stake in the welfare of his country, and we should no longer hear of so many crimes.'

When a fair comparison is made between the incomes and the outgoings of the poor, we shall not be surprized at the misery that prevails. The Reporter gives a table exhibiting at one view the expences and the earnings of six families of labourers by the week and by the year, in the parish of Glynd, in the year 1793; by which it appears that the total annual expence of a family of eight persons was 42l. 14s. 4d. while the total annual earnings were only 28l. 12s.: that a family of 3 persons expended 18l. 1s. 6d., but earned only 13l.: that a family of 6 persons expended 36l. 14s. 2d., and earned only 36l. 8s.: that another family of 6 persons expended 37l. 8s. 10d. and earned only 31l. 4s.: that a family of 7 persons expended

40l. 9s. 11d., and earned only 36l. 8s.; and that a family of three persons expended 23l. 8s. 8d. and earned only 22l. 2s.: so that the deficiency of earnings was in the first instance 14l. 2s. 2d.; in the second 5l. 1s. 6d.; in the third 6s. 2d.; in the fourth 6l. 4s. 10d.; in the fifth 4l. 1s. 11d.; and in the sixth 1l. 6s. 8d. These facts require no comment.—Potatoes mixed with flour are not recommended to the poor as economical food: but the right application of this root, for human provision, is stated to be that of roasting or *baking* it. Though Mr. Young speaks favourably, as far as experiments have gone in Sussex, respecting Houses of Industry, erected at the joint expence of associated parishes, he reprobates the Parish Work-houses as the vilest establishments in the island.—The people in this county are reported to be rapidly multiplying: but the amount of the population is not given.

Among the Obstacles to Improvement the before-mentioned *Shaws*, which surround the inclosures, Common Rights, and Tithes, are specified; the confusion which reigns in the Weights and Measures is lamented, as in other county-reports; and the work concludes with a short chapter on the means of improvement, in which the author, adverting to the overshadowed state of the Weald, recommends its conversion into a grazing district.—An Appendix contains an account of Lord Sheffield's estate in the Weald; and prefixed is a map, containing a sketch of the soil of Sussex.

In this compilation, Mr. Young has acquitted himself with ability. His style is easy; and his principles are those of a liberal and enlightened economist.

Mo-y.

Art. V. *A Dictionary of Chemistry and Mineralogy*, with an Account of the Processes employed in many of the most important chemical Manufactures. To which are added a Description of Chemical Apparatus, and various useful Tables of Weights and Measures, chemical Instruments, &c. &c. Illustrated with 15 Engravings. By A. and C. R. Aikin. 4to. 2 Vols. pp about 600 in each. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Arch, and W. Phillips.

In a modest and well-written preface, the authors of this work point out the principal objects which they have had in view, and state their claims to the attention of the public. They say that they have aimed at giving 'a faithful and sufficiently-detailed description of all the important facts hitherto discovered in the sciences of chemistry and mineralogy, enlarging more particularly on those parts which are of peculiar interest to the manufacturer and practical chemist.' The collateral sciences, such as Geology, Galvanism, &c. are omitted,

and little is inserted on the history of chemistry: but in all the accounts of experiments and processes, they have been studiously minute, so as to render their Dictionary a complete 'Laboratory Guide.' On the subject of the chemical arts and manufactures, they have endeavoured to explain the general principles on which they are conducted, in order that the manufacturer may be enabled to understand the *rationale* of each process, and thus have the best chance of improving it. They declare also that they have been scrupulously exact in obtaining their information from the original sources, when this could be accomplished; and in all the references that are made, the works have been actually consulted by them. A considerable quantity of new matter, likewise, they state, will be found dispersed through the volumes, which is the result of their own experiments, or has been communicated by their friends.

On this plan, Messrs. Aikin profess to have acted; and, after a careful and long-continued examination of their performance, we deem ourselves justified in reporting that they have fully executed their intentions. In both the practical parts of chemistry, viz. that which respects the scientific experimentalist, and that which more immediately refers to the operations of the chemical artist, the volumes will be found highly serviceable; and we know not any modern work which can come into competition with them. In perusing them, we are unavoidably led to contrast them with publications of a similar kind which have lately appeared in France. M. Chaptal's book, intitled "Chemistry applied to the Arts," may be fairly compared with the corresponding articles in this Dictionary; and we have no hesitation in saying that the merit of the English authors will be rendered the more apparent by the comparison. We cannot express our idea of the relative value of the two productions more fully than by observing, that both are strongly tinctured with the national character of the authors; M. Chaptal is verbose, diffuse, and often entertaining, but often inaccurate; Messrs. Aikin are concise, clear, unassuming, and correct.

If we were to specify any parts of these volumes to which we should give the preference, it would be those which treat on subjects of metallurgy, and of the arts connected with this department. The article *Assay* is one of those which we should point out as a model. It occupies ten of the closely printed and capacious pages of which the Dictionary is composed, and is of such a nature as to be incapable of either analysis or abridgement. We should also select the article *Iron* as of great merit, and we think that it may be regarded

as the most complete account of this substance which has ever appeared in print. It is divided into seven sections; the 1st. containing a description of the ores of iron; the 2d., on the analysis and assay of iron ores; the 3d., on the reduction of iron ores; the 4th., on the manufacture and properties of steel; the 5th., on the comparison and analysis of cast iron, bar-iron, and steel; the 6th., on the physical properties of iron and steel; and the 7th., on the chemical properties of iron. The third section is of peculiar interest, and displays not only a laudable industry in the collection of facts, but a profound knowlege of the principles of science.

The authors begin by some remarks on the methods which the antients employed for the reduction of iron ore; which, being less perfect than those that are now in common use, obliged them to employ only the richest kinds, and those that were the most easily worked. The account of this process is taken from Agricola. The modern methods may be properly considered as only two, the difference between which chiefly depends on the nature of the fuel employed, whether charcoal or coal. As a specimen of the former operation, the authors give a minute detail of the process followed in the preparation of the Swedish iron, which is obtained from the magnetic ore. It is first submitted to the roasting furnace, where the small quantity of sulphur and the moisture which it contains are driven off, and it is thus rendered fit for the stamping-mill, where it is reduced to a coarse powder. The shape of the smelting furnace nearly resembles that of two truncated cones, joined base to base, the lower of which is furnished with two openings; through one the blast of air enters, and through the other the melted matter is discharged.

'The furnace is first filled with charcoal alone and well heated, after which alternate charges are added of ore, either alone, or mixed with lime-stone if it requires any flux, and charcoal: the blast is let on and the metal in the ore being highly carbonized in its passage through the upper part of the furnace is readily melted as soon as it arrives in the focus of the blast, whence it subsides in a fluid state to the bottom of the furnace covered with a melted slag. Part of the clay that closes the lower aperture of the furnace is occasionally removed to allow the scoriæ to flow out, and at the end of every ninth hour the iron itself is discharged into a bed of sand where it forms from ten to twelve small pigs. As soon as the iron has flowed out the aperture is closed again, and thus the furnace is kept in incessant activity during the first six months in the year; the other six months are employed in repairing the furnaces, making charcoal, and collecting the requisite provision of wood and ore.'

The iron thus formed into pigs next undergoes the process of refining, by which it is converted into bars; this is ef-

fected by heating it in contact with charcoal a sufficient number of times, and then subjecting it to the action of the hammer.

In Great Britain, where the scarcity of charcoal renders it necessary to employ coal in the manufacture of iron, a different kind of process is adopted; which, as the authors remark, has advantages and disadvantages peculiar to itself. 'If in the quantity of produce from each forge the British claims the superiority, yet this is probably more than counterbalanced by the inferior quality of the metal, the greater multiplicity of apparatus, and consequently the greater capital laid out, and the smaller proportion of iron procured from a given weight of ore.' The genius of our countrymen seems, however, to have been stimulated rather than repressed by these difficulties; and different improvements have been successively made, by which the British manufactured iron has been enabled 'to enter into competition with every other kind except the very best Norwegian and Swedish.' The argillaceous iron-stone is preferred in the coak-furnaces to the hæmatites; because, although the last contains more metallic matter, yet the other is worked to more advantage, and is generally accompanied by beds of coal. The first operation here, as in the former case, is the roasting; by which the ore is deprived of the sulphur, water, inflammable matter, and carbonic acid, which it contained, and is rendered proper for smelting. The smelting-furnace, which is in the form of a four-sided pyramid, is filled with layers of coak, iron-ore, and lime-stone; and the blast and the discharging opening are at a very considerable depth below the part at which the ore is first ignited, so that it arrives at the bottom of the furnace almost saturated with carbon. When it gets to the focus, the limestone acts as a flux, and the earthy particles of the ore form a slag, while the iron separates, and from its superior gravity falls to the lowest part of the furnace. It is let out at proper intervals, and received into furrows of sand to form the pig-iron, or cast into moulds. This is the general outline of the process: but many circumstances are connected with it which influence the result, and on the management of which, in a great measure, depends its complete success. A great point is the nature of the coals that are employed, particularly with respect to their degree of inflammability, and whether they contain any quantity of bituminous matter. When this substance is present, they are rendered less fit for the operation of smelting, in consequence of their cementing into a mass, and thus not permitting the ore to fall down into the blast at regular intervals. It is also essential that the fuel should be perfectly

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dry, and that its quantity should be adapted to the richness of the ore, since otherwise a variable product will be obtained. The fusibility of the ore is an important circumstance; the hæmatites, which is the richest and most fusible ore, and therefore the best to be employed with charcoal, does not answer for the formation of cast iron, when smelted with coak, because it falls to the bottom of the furnace before it has time to imbibe the proper proportion of carbon. A great part of the success of the operation depends on the management of the blast; and this is influenced by its dryness, its temperature, its compression, and its direction. Some of these circumstances are not within the power of the artist, being governed by the weather; and it is accordingly found that a dry frost is more advantageous than either a moist or a hot state of the air, both these latter rendering it less fit for supporting a rapid combustion.

Messrs. Aikin then proceed to offer some remarks on the chemical difference between cast and bar-iron. Although he former substance has not been regularly analyzed, yet rom its properties, and from the methods which are used to ender it malleable, we may conclude that it consists of a ixture of metallic matter, oxygen, and carbon. To deprive ie cast iron of these latter substances, as well as to free it om any accidental impurities which it may contain, is the ject of the different refining processes that have been opted; and which all fundamentally consist in heating the ss in contact with charcoal, and afterward subjecting it to ong pressure, by means of the forge-hammer. Three ways accomplishing these objects are employed in this country, ich have obtained the technical names of *stamping*, *flourish-*, and *puddling*; and each is described by the authors with uracy. The *stamping* process is the most generally adopted. at which has acquired the name of *flourishing* dif- from the former principally in the metal being reduced to a state of imperfect fusion, while in the refinery, and s being forged into bars of a peculiar shape. The process *uddling* is a more recent invention: but we are told that it iming into general use. The pigs of cast iron are selected rding to their degree of carbonization, which is judged by t external appearance, and are melted into an uniform grey

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common reverberatory furnace, heated by coal, is now charged about 7½ cwt. of the half refined grey iron. In a little more half an hour, the metal will be found to be nearly melted; at riod the flame is turned off, a little water is sprinkled over it, workman by introducing an iron bar, or an instrument shaped

like a hoe, through a hole in the side of the furnace, begins to stir the half fluid mass and divide it into small pieces. In the course of about fifty minutes from the commencement of the process, the iron will have been reduced by constant stirring to the consistence of small gravel, and will be considerably cooled. The flame is then turned on again, the workman continuing to stir the metal, and in three minutes time the whole mass becomes soft and semi-fluid, upon which the flame is again turned off. The hottest part of the iron now begins to heave and swell, and emit a deep-blue lambent flame, which appearance is called fermentation: the heaving motion and accompanying flame soon spread over the whole, and the heat of the metal seems to be rather increased than diminished for the next quarter of an hour: after this period the temperature again falls, the blue flame is less vigorous, and in a little more than a quarter of an hour the metal is cooled to a dull red, and the jets of flame are rare and faint. During the whole of the fermentation, the stirring is continued, by which the iron is at length brought to the consistency of sand, it also approaches nearer to the malleable state, and in consequence adheres less than at first to the tool with which it is stirred. During the next half hour the flame is turned off and on several times, a stronger fermentation takes place, and a loud hissing noise is perceived, the lambent flame also becomes of a clearer and lighter blue, the metal begins to clot, and becomes much less fusible and more tenacious than at first; the fermentation then by degrees subsides, the emission of blue flame nearly ceases, the iron is gathered into lumps and beaten with a heavy-headed tool. Finally, the tools are withdrawn, the apertures through which they were worked are closed, and the flame is turned on in full force for six or eight minutes. The pieces being thus brought to a high welding heat are withdrawn and shingled; after this they are again heated and passed through grooved rollers, by which the scoriæ are separated, and the bars thus forcibly compressed acquire a high degree of tenacity.'

Section IV., which contains an account of the manufacture and properties of steel, will be found equally interesting and valuable with the preceding. After some observations on the general properties of steel, the authors proceed with the details of the different methods that are employed for its formation. The description of the antient process is taken from Agricola. It consisted in fusing together, in a crucible, portions of bar-iron and charcoal, afterward subjecting them to the forge-hammer, and then plunging the metal while hot into cold water. It was then a second time fused with charcoal, and again plunged into cold water, and afterward forged into slender bars. What has been called the native steel of Styria is prepared directly from the ore of that country, which is a spathose iron-stone, nearly in the same manner in which common bar-iron is formed on the continent. The only difference seems to consist in some precautions which are employed in the method of removing the scoriæ, to prevent the

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iron from being at the same time decarbonized. When the manufacturer wishes to convert this steel into iron, he removes the carbon from it, by roasting the bars in the reverberatory furnace, and by not adding any charcoal to the refinery. In Norway and Sweden, iron is converted into steel simply by adding a larger quantity of charcoal to the smelting furnace. The process adopted in this country has obtained the name of *cementation*; and it consists in placing layers of charcoal and iron in a furnace shaped like a trough, excluding the action of the air, and then subjecting the whole to a strong red heat for the space of several days. By this operation, the metal imbibes that quantity of carbon which seems to constitute the essential difference between steel and iron; and the steel is still farther perfected, by repeating the fusion and by subsequent hammering. In order to form steel of the very finest quality, different processes are employed by individual manufacturers, which are in some degree kept secret.—The hardening and tempering of steel are next described at considerable length, together with the method of uniting steel and iron; and the section concludes with an account of a peculiar kind of steel, procured from the East Indies, called *Wootz*; which, according to the analysis of Dr. Pearson, seems to differ from common steel only in containing a little of the oxyd of iron.

In the Vth section, 'on the comparison and analysis of cast iron, bar-iron, and steel,' the writers have an opportunity of displaying to great advantage not merely their accurate knowlege of facts, but the extent of their acquaintance with the scientific principles of chemistry. They observe that 'much yet remains to be done, before an entirely satisfactory theory can be formed to account for the different properties possessed by the various kinds of iron and steel.' They propose to shew what progress has been made in the investigation, and to point out those parts in which it is still defective. The first object to ascertain in these analyses is the proportion of pure iron that is found in the different forms under which we usually meet with this metal; and the method adopted for this purpose is to discover the quantity of hydrogen gas given out during the solution of the metal under examination in diluted sulphuric acid, the pure metal being the only part of the compound which has the property of decomposing the water so as to set at liberty the hydrogenous part of it. This mode of analysis, however, is not worthy of implicit reliance, because the hydrogen, during its formation, combines itself to a portion of the carbon which is contained in cast iron and steel, and converts the hydrogen into a hydro-carbonous gas: but it

appears

appears that, by employing proper precautions, particularly by conducting the solution at a low temperature, the hydrogen may be obtained in a state of considerable purity; and that the amount of the iron may be learned with at least a tolerable degree of accuracy.

Directions are next given for ascertaining the quantity of carbon contained in a specimen of iron; which method consists in treating it with nitro-muriatic acid, and igniting the residue in a crucible: in this way the greater part of the iron will be dissolved by the acid, and the remainder will be oxidated, while the carbon is entirely consumed. Although it would seem that this kind of analysis might indicate the proportion of iron and carbon with considerable minuteness, yet this does not appear to be the case; and Messrs. Aikin state, as the result of all the experience which we possess on the subject, 'that bar-iron contains a smaller quantity of carbon than the softer varieties of steel, and these again always contain less than the common and finer cast steel'; that in the white, the mottled, the grey, and the black varieties of cast iron, the dose of carbon is constantly augmenting, in the last of which the proportion of carbon is probably about $\frac{1}{20}$ of the whole.'

Besides carbon, oxygen is found to be a very frequent constituent of the different varieties of iron; and cast iron, in particular, seems to be highly charged with this principle. The authors ingeniously remark on this subject, that 'it may seem at first a paradox to maintain the co-existence of oxygen and carbon in the same metallic mass, especially considering the great heat to which it is exposed in the process of reduction, since it is an universal and uncontroverted fact that metallic oxyds are decomposed by carbon at a high temperature, the oxygen and carbon uniting together and being dissipated in the form of gas, the metallic regulus remaining behind.' This apparent anomaly is explained by the consideration of the large quantity of matter on which we operate, the coarseness of the process, and the pressure of the superincumbent scoriæ. It is to the escape of this oxygen, in combination with different proportions of carbon, forming either carbonic acid or the gaseous oxyd of carbon, that the kind of fermentation depends, which was described in the operation called *puddling*. Steel is probably entirely free from oxygen; and in this circumstance, together with its greater purity from extraneous substances, it principally differs from cast iron.

We have next some remarks on the action of the vitrifiable earths on iron; on the different results that are obtained from the smelting process, according as coak or charcoal is employed; and on the variations that exist in the visible and other

other physical properties of iron, according to the proportion of carbon which it contains. The section closes with some observations on what have been called hot-short and cold-short iron, the first of which has been supposed to derive its peculiar properties from arsenic, and the latter from phosphoric acid. The present writers seem inclined to doubt the truth of these opinions, though they are supported by the most respectable authorities; and to imagine that the property of iron becoming brittle, when it is cold, may depend simply on the addition of oxygen.

Section VII. contains a correct and luminous account of the operation of the different chemical re-agents on iron, its combustion in oxygen, the action of atmospheric air and water on it, the formation of its different oxyds, its solution in carbonic acid, and the constitution of chalybeate springs. The metallic salt formed by the union of sulphuric acid and iron, —the green vitriol of commerce,—is an important article of manufacture, and is here treated with that minuteness which the authors always bestow on subjects of this description. The salt is usually prepared from iron pyrites; a mineral which, by exposure to the atmosphere, possesses the property of oxygenating the sulphur which it contains, and converting it into sulphuric acid, which then acts on and dissolves the iron. The process of the manufacturer consists in extracting and purifying the sulphat of iron thus spontaneously produced. With the exception of the acetite, which is used by the calico-printers, the sulphat is the only salt of iron that is employed in the arts: but some other preparations of the metal are introduced into the Pharmacopœia; and we must not omit that most valuable of all artificial fluids, ink, which principally consists of the gallate of iron. The sulphurets of iron form an important class of compounds, which in course find a place in this section; and it terminates with a description of the method of coating iron with tin, to form tinned plates, which are so extensively useful in our domestic economy.

From the abstract which we have given of this article, we think that our readers will be enabled to form an idea of the variety of useful information which is imparted in these volumes. We may add that the articles are generally well selected; and that the authors have, for the most part, avoided the practice, which is so frequent in scientific dictionaries, of perpetually referring the reader from place to place, and thus, at every instant, interrupting his progress. This indeed depends very much on the manner in which dictionaries are usually manufactured; since they are principally a collection of detached

tached fragments, taken verbatim from different sources, and often wholly unconnected with each other. These, however, are productions of a very different stamp from that which is now before us, and which may justly be regarded as an original work, though composed, in a great measure, as every book on general science must be, from the labours of others: because in making use of those labours the writers have exercised their own powers of judgment and selection, have brought into one focus the scattered rays of information, have compared and appreciated opposing hypotheses, and have endeavoured to reconcile such facts as appeared to be discordant.

We do not consider it as necessary to enter into a discussion respecting the merit of the alphabetical form of arrangement. Its defects have been frequently pointed out, and cannot be denied: but it also possesses decided conveniences; and in the present condition of chemistry, as consisting of an immense body of facts, the connecting theory of which is still in an imperfect state, the technical form of a dictionary is less objectionable than it would be in a more finished department of science.

In so extensive a production, and which embraces so great a variety of subjects, it must unavoidably happen that all its parts are not equally good; and perhaps scarcely any two persons would, in all instances, exactly agree in their ideas as to the space that ought to be allotted to each individual article. Although it seems to be very far from the general manner of the present authors, to spin out their subjects to an unreasonable length, yet in a few cases they appear to us to be unnecessarily diffuse. On the other hand, we think that more might frequently have been said respecting the theories which are generally adopted, or even such as have formerly been in vogue, though now discarded. This, we are aware, does not exactly enter into the plan of the authors: but such additions would, in our opinion, have made their work more complete, without adding much to its size. Among minor defects, we may remark that we have, in one or two cases, been referred to articles which do not exist, at least in their proper order; and we have likewise, but very rarely, discovered some slight inaccuracies in the references. As impartial judges we feel it incumbent on us to notice those circumstances which may be regarded as, in any measure, diminishing the value of these volumes: but, at the same time, we acknowlege that their merits so very far exceed their defects, that we feel reluctance in being obliged to bring the latter into notice.

Bos.

ART.

ART. VI. *Palmerin of England*, by Francis de Moraes: corrected by Robert Southey, from the original Portuguese. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE principal testimony in favour of the romance of Palmerin of England is the decision of the Curate of Don Quixote's village; who, on examining the library of that renowned hero, in company with Master Nicholas the Barber, ordered the whole of this chivalric class of books to be burnt, except Amadis of Gaul and Palmerin of England. Of the latter he speaks in rather extravagant terms, calling it a "*cosa unica*," (which Smollet still more extravagantly translates into "an inestimable jewel,") and directing a casket to be made for it, such as that which Alexander found among the spoils of Darius, and set apart in order that the works of Homer might be kept in it. If this really were its character and value in comparison with the rest of the rueful Knight's library, his mental derangement cannot be matter of surprize; since the brain of any ordinary person would much sooner be turned, than it would succeed in endeavouring to collect either tale or moral even from the adventures of Palmerin of England. We shall not, on the present occasion, attempt to give our readers any sketch of these extraordinary events; which would, indeed, be impossible without copying the book, because almost every page contains several incidents, and new circumstances and new characters are constantly introduced; the story rambles unconnectedly from Knights to Giants, — from Giants to Emperors, Queens, and Princesses, — from Palaces to Castles, and from Castles to Enchanted Woods,— and the whole circle of crowned heads, from the Emperor of Constantinople to the Prince of Denmark and that most unhistorical personage King Fabrique of England — nay the whole human race, and all animate and inanimate nature,— are introduced in such rapid succession, that nothing but the book itself can possibly give any idea of its relations.

We acknowlege, therefore, that in our opinion the mere perusal of this production is almost sufficient to reduce the reader to the unhappy condition of the Knight of La Mancha; and we are by no means disposed to undertake an adventure so much in his style, as to attempt to abridge this unique and inestimable portion of his library. Those who are unread in the lore of old romances we most earnestly advise to remain happy in their ignorance; and those, who are in any degree acquainted with such subjects, cannot be supposed to be ignorant of this work. It is, we believe, one of the last of the family; we say *family*, because, like the persons in antient Mythology,

Mythology, the Knights and Heroes of the Romances are all related to each other. For instance, the heroes of the Trojan War were the descendants of those who were engaged in the Argonautic Expedition, and ancestors of those who shine in the early Roman History. In the same manner, the adventures of the Heroes of the French and Spanish Romances are connected together, every later writer tacking his hero to some one who had gone before; till a chain of alliance is formed between all the persons in the world, and it would not be difficult to make out the pedigree from Achilles to Primaleon. Palmerin of England was the son of Don Duardos, (i. e. Edward) of England, by the Princess Flerida, daughter of Palmerin D'Oliva, Emperor of Constantinople. The Emperor had several other sons, (as Palmendos and Primaleon,) all most renowned heroes, whose acts have formed the subjects of several separate Romances; composing altogether a large library of family-history. We discern also a strong family-likeness; "*facies* (*quippe*) *omnibus una*"—as we cannot better explain than in the words of Mr. Southey, in his preface; where (speaking of a French edition of Palmerin d'Oliva) he says;

'I recognize in this edition many of the same prints as are used in the small French edition of Amadis of Greece, p. 2. a copy of which I possess—but have not at hand to give its date. In fact they did for any romance; a lady in child-bed at the beginning,—her trusty damsel going out of the door with a child in her arms, in one compartment; and in another a man riding away to expose it; a battle on horseback; a battle on foot; a battle at sea; a knight and lady kissing; another birth like the first; and at last, the son kneeling for his parents' blessing when the secret is discovered.'

Mr. Southey seems to be perfectly convinced that this work is the production of Francisco de Moraes, a Portugueze, who was Treasurer to Joam 3rd., and professed in the order of Christ April 17, 1566. We own that we are not quite so well satisfied as Mr. S. appears to be with the reasonings by which he arrives at this fact; and we recollect that our worthy and intelligent friend the Curate says that this Romance was supposed to have been written by an ingenious king of Portugal, a mistake (supposing it to be so) for which we do not observe any attempt on the part of Mr. S. to account. We think, indeed, that it is wrong for any one to be very positive, at this time of day, respecting a fact of this description, on which it appears that Cervantes was not informed. Whoever wrote it, the work was first introduced to the English reader by old Anthony Munday and Co. in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. These men appear to have manufactured translations of this kind,

kind, much in the same way that prevails in the concoction of Pantomimes; rendering just as much as they could understand, and supplying the place of what they could not comprehend by the substitution of slaps on the back, cuttings off of legs and arms, beating out of eyes, and other minutiæ equally pleasant and entertaining.—The present publication 'preserves this old translation wherever it represents the original and wherever it is not worse; but every picture and every trait of costume, however minute, is restored, and considerably more than half the book is re-translated.' (Preface, p. 44.) The language, as we might expect, is an odd mixture of antient and modern expressions, frequently ungrammatical, and to our apprehension uniformly dull and careless. The following passage is surely not '*corrected* by Robert Southey:'

'While the princess Flerida remained in the forest, expecting that which came not, as well to abandon divers choleric humours that overcharged her impatient mind, as also to exile the eager passions which were still approaching her weak nature, she busied herself in gathering flowers, for it was the month of May, accompanied with the fair Artada, and divers ladies and gentlemen; for that this time of recreation was more correspondent to her good liking, than heretofore she could conceive the opinion to like any. Thus she waited for the return of her lord Don Duardos, whose long absence she admitted to some misfortune, or else ungentleness in himself disdained her presence. In which of these to resolve herself she was doubtful, for that in the one she might convict herself of rash belief, though in the other, she might stand upon good occasion. Between these cogitations she spent this whole day, yielding her complaints likewise to the uncomfortable night approaching: which indeed seemed to her more obscure, more grievous, and more desperable, than any night passed to her remembrance. So that upon this hard motion, she fell into a resolute opinion, never to hear good tidings of her lord Don Duardos.'

On the whole, we dismiss Palmerin with every courteous wish for his happiness, and for his success in any future adventures with which he may meet: but we must decline to give him any letters of recommendation to our friends and readers, and cannot help wishing that we may never have another *rencontre* with him. As for Mr. Southey, we estimate so respectably his character and talents, that we really regret that he should devote himself to the *correction* of nonsensical Romances, while we can by no means praise him for the manner in which he has executed that office on the present occasion.

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ART. VII. *Mémoires*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of the Count Joseph De Puisaye, Lieutenant-General, &c. &c. being Materials for the History of the Royalist French Party during the late Revolution. Vol. VI. in two Parts. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Budd.

WE again resume the irksome task of attending to the confused and (seemingly) endless relations of M. de Puisaye: but it is not within our province or our power to reduce a chaos of this sort into order, nor to form a narrative from a *melange* in which so little regard is paid to plan and method. Like the former volumes, the present discloses facts of great importance, and imparts communications which are of high interest: but they are mixed up with a very undue proportion of matter which bears a very opposite character. A few of the more curious statements, and which wear most of the semblance of authenticity, we shall submit to our readers.

If the counter-revolutionary plans of M. de P. have failed, he acquits the British ministry of having in any degree occasioned the course which was taken by events; and he speaks in the highest terms of their ready, chearful, and zealous co-operation.

'Every thing, (says he,) that I deemed necessary or useful for the success of my projects, I had only to demand in order to obtain. Far from experiencing in the offices those difficulties of detail and form by which opportunities are lost, and the best concerted and most matured schemes are defeated, I have found in them all as much alacrity as if in truth it had been the King of England whom we sought to restore to his throne, and not the King of France. Mr. Crewe in the ordnance, Mr. Nepean in the navy, and Mr. Huskisson in the finance departments, are names which I cannot recall without gratitude, and which are intitled to the acknowlegements of the royalists. Even now, at the distance of ten years, the latter gentleman still feels that interest for them, which he displayed when they were making their greatest exertions; and when the ministry was changed previously to the peace of Amiens, Mr. Huskisson, who had been privy to the engagements of the preceding government in their favour, did them justice not in that doubtful and reluctant manner which annuls the obligation, but with that promptitude and good will which so much enhance the price of the service.'

These, then, were the important personages who were so active and alert in committing their country to those inauspicious measures, which have so deeply affected her fortunes, and which have accumulated on her burthens that are without parallel.

If, however, the cabinet of St. James's assisted M. de P. by their zeal, even according to his own account, he does not

not seem to have been much indebted to their judgment. This fact is shewn by their imposing on him the Comte d'Hervilly as his second in command; an appointment which, according to the statements before us, occasioned the dismal catastrophe which terminated all the mighty preparations that had been made, and the vast expence that had been incurred.

During the troubles which were occasioned by the obstinacy of the Archbishop of Sens and M. de Lamoignon, d'Hervilly was sent by the Government to Brittany at the head of a regiment of which he was the second colonel, to compel by force the submission of the country to the orders of these senseless innovators. As the object was nothing less than to annihilate all the remains of the Breton constitution, the resistance was unanimous;—it was not a revolt: but a whole people claimed the observance of those conditions on which they had consented to be united to France; and who did not consider themselves as bound by their promises, any longer than the conditions accepted by the sovereign when they entered into them were observed. The government, too unwise to yield to justice, had recourse to coercion: but 'when the griefs of a people (observes M. de P.) are founded in reason, the application of violence is a certain symptom of debility.'—On this occasion, M. d'Hervilly is said to have acted the soldier, and to have drawn on himself the detestation of all the Bretons, as well Royalists as Republicans. The lapse of a few years had not effaced the impression which this adventure had made. Yet this circumstance, which certainly ought to have formed no recommendation to the ministers of a monarch who owes his throne to the assertion of the right of resistance, and which with wise and calculating men must have weighed as an insurmountable objection to d'Hervilly's appointment, was lightly estimated by Mr. Pitt and his colleagues.

The event, however, according to this author, proved to be extremely unfortunate; and, if we may trust his judgment, this unnatural preference, by ministers of a free country, caused the failure of the restoration of the Bourbons. D'Hervilly is here charged with being under the influence of the courtiers of the Princes, and with having entered into their scheme to render the Quiberon expedition abortîve. He is said to have set himself against his superior commander, to have insulted him, to have thwarted him in every thing, uniformly to have disobeyed his orders, and to have defeated all his plans by opposition or delay. It is worthy of notice, as shewing in what a ridiculous and preposterous manner this little party act who are in the interest of the French Princes,

that this M. d'Hervilly, who is accused of having condescended to be their tool, was regarded by them with suspicion and disdain, because he had accepted military preferment in 1791; and, says M. de Puisaye, it was represented by these courtiers, "that it was only from their hands that absolution for the Constitutional sin could be received, and the bastards of the Revolution could be legitimatized."

One of the instruments employed to excite d'Hervilly to this plan of counteracting his superior commander was M. de Contades, who is thus described by the present writer: 'M. de C. is one of those beings who cannot dissemble their incapacity, but who still have cunning enough to attach themselves to the fortune of others, so as to follow them in their elevation without running the risk of sharing in their fall. A courtier by instinct, greedy of favour, and prodigal of protestations, to which his benign exterior and slender powers lend an air of sincerity, he is always true to the trivial principle so familiar to animals like him, *it is a good thing to have two strings to one's bow.*'

M. de P. very properly inveighs against the unaccountable folly and perverseness of the emigrants, in confounding the Constitutionalists with the Jacobins. The proclamation issued by the author on the occasion of his ill-fated expedition avoided that error, and was drawn up with great good sense and moderation. In March 1795, we are informed, a letter from the Regent was published, which was little calculated to bring back the Constitutionalists to the interests of that Prince. 'This party,' observes M. de P., 'has been the only formidable one in the course of the whole revolution; and on the death of Robespierre, it gradually resumed its ascendancy, which the reign of terror had only suspended.' Though this party might have been conciliated, [illegible]gh it could never have been conquered: but the councils of the Princes paid no regard to this consideration; and on the death of the Dauphin they issued a proclamation, the tendency of which was to counteract all the good effects of that of M. de Puisaye. In offering a general pardon, it enumerated the offenders, and made no distinction in favour of the Constituent Assembly: but 'it described its members as unfaithful trustees, who had betrayed the confidence placed in them, violated their oaths, paved the way to revolt, and caused all the evils that had occurred. It required that the re-establishment of the royal authority should precede the reform of abuses.'—'This was language,' continues the author, 'which would have been suitable only after numerous victories, and was not such as ought to have been held to men who were in a situation to make their terms.

The royal counsellors, who had Monk and Charles constantly in their mouths, ought not to have forgotten that, if the declaration of Breda had been as vague as that of Verona, Charles would never have found his way to the throne.' This paper, circulated industriously in la Vendée by the agents of the court of Verona, clearly proves that, while the British ministers were exerting their utmost endeavours to restore the King of France, the depositaries of that prince's confidence were taking every step in their power to defeat the object of England. Innumerable facts, which occur in this volume, shew that the weakness of the princes, and the folly of their partisans, have more advanced the fortunes of Bonaparte than his own unparallelled abilities.

Count de Puisaye admits that his situation, on landing at Quiberon, was highly favourable, while that of the republican forces opposed to him was the reverse.

'Hoche,' he states, 'had few troops, and discontent was general among his officers and soldiers, a natural result of their being in want of every thing, while we had abundance, and received intelligence of their proceedings from various quarters. It is indubitable that, if all the royalist divisions as well in Brittanny as in Maine and Normandy had risen together at this time, as they were disposed to do, and as I had given them orders to do, and if we had marched rapidly forwards, we should have prevented Hoche from collecting his small army, which lay dispersed over a surface of fifty leagues of country; and had this been done it is beyond all doubt that the deliverance of Brittany would have been effected; that the rescue of the whole kingdom would have followed; and that an immense majority of the French, who were as yet strangers to the impolitic declaration which the agents of the King had substituted for that which I had issued, would have shewn themselves, and declared in favour of their lawful sovereign. I now speak only of the party of the royalists which I had organized: but how much more certain would have been the result which I have mentioned, had the three armies which occupied la Vendée united in one grand movement! Why was it only the Morbihan, which scarcely forms one fifteenth part of the insurgent countries, that rose in arms on our arrival? Why did not Poitou and Anjou, the remaining five fifths of Brittany and the Maine, follow the example? Of whom shall the widows and orphans demand their fathers and husbands, and the King of France his crown; and to whom are we to charge the blood which then flowed? The chiefs of la Vendée were apprized in time, and charged to be in readiness to co-operate with us on our arrival. They were disposed to do so; and how happened it that they did not? The agents of the royal favourites and confidants found means to communicate with the insurgents, and had impressed them to that degree with the idea of English perfidy, and the treachery of Pitt, that they paid no attention to promises from that quarter, but believed that I had been the dupe of the finesse of the British

ministry; and the general body of the insurgents, instead of co-operating with the invading forces, sent to Paris to confirm the pacification into which they had lately entered with the Directory.'

We abstain from observations on this remarkable passage, that we may have the more room for subsequent extracts.

M. de Puisaye gives this sketch of the landing of the expedition:

'In order to secure our landing not a match was lighted, and we disembarked as if on a friendly shore. The scene which followed exceeds description. Tears flowed from many an eye which had long ceased to shed them; the enthusiasm between the troops and the inhabitants was carried to the greatest height; and had Hoche's army been near, *the Republic would not have survived that day*. The good people of Morbihan ran to us from all parts, bringing in their beasts and carriages loaded with provisions, and hailing us as their deliverers. The money which was tendered to them in exchange they rejected with scorn. Old men, women, and children, were seen up to their knees in sand dragging the cannon. The men swam to boats, in order to convey on shore the arms, ammunition, and clothing; they contended who should bear the heaviest burthens; the soldiers were infected with the patriotic phrenzy of the people; and the whole coast resounded with *Long Live our Religion, Long Live our King!*'

It is certainly very difficult to believe what is constantly reiterated in these pages, that the insurgents refused to unite with M. de Puisaye in consequence of express orders from the King of France to remain quiet; and he says that, at that particular time, nothing but the concurrence of the authors of the subversion of the throne, with its victims, could have saved the tottering Republic. Pursuing this subject, he observes, 'of all the phænomena which have astonished this age, the most remarkable is that there should be found a set of men, sottish enough to pretend to direct an armed force, in the labours and dangers of which they did not share, and criminal enough to wish to see an end put to their hopes, rather than endure the chagrin of not being able to appropriate to themselves exclusively the advantages of success.'

'Presumptuous in proportion to their folly, they have fastened on the French Princes like those insects which fix themselves in the flesh, feeding on the prey of which they weaken the force and devour the substance. Enemies of the glory and destroyers of the interests of their masters, in all that can give any umbrage to their ambition and cupidity, the evil which they most dreaded was lest men, who were distinguished by great services, should obtain that share in the confidence of their masters which they themselves had usurped: all their efforts were directed to ward off this calamity: but what arms are they capable of wielding, except those of defamation and low intrigue?'

With these followers of the Princes, the author contrasts the honest enthusiastic insurgents:

'*They* did not *write*: but they exposed their lives and all that was most dear to them at every moment of the day. Isolated from the rest of mankind, and confined to their blood-stained soil, which was become the last asylum of religion, of honour, and of fidelity, they relied on their actions to transmit their fame. Little did they suspect that their conduct was the subject of detraction among any except the enemies of the King; and had they been apprized of the fact as it stood, they were too much employed to refute calumnies which were as contemptible as their authors. They were placed between two parties: the one inveterate against them because they were the sole obstacle to the career of the Revolution; the other interested in their ruin, because they might stand in the way of ambition without courage and without talents. Not a line has been published with regard to them which has not been dictated by hatred and envy.'

M. de Puisaye congratulates himself on being the only author who has done justice to these people: but we wish that he had appeared more disinterested in the execution of his undertaking, and that he had not encumbered his narrative with an endless detail of trivial matters with respect to his own affairs.

In conformity to an idea strongly impressed by the whole turn of this voluminous work, the author says:

'It was not by the efforts of the open enemies of the King of France, that an end was put to my exertions, which had been continued for six years of a painful and hazardous struggle, but by the intrigues and baseness of his false friends. My object was the restoration of the monarchy, but of the monarchy purged of the abuses which had been the primary and principal cause of the crisis which we were undergoing. The mode of doing this was to repress the factions by uniting to the King the immense majority of the nation. Had I not been the enemy of those abuses from reason, from honour, and from principle, I ought to have been such from policy.'

These reflections on abuses are very creditable to M. de Puisaye, and we wish that other great functionaries saw them in the same light.

We have not room to enter into a critical examination of the tragical and bloody conclusion of this expedition to Quiberon: nor have we the means of ascertaining the merits of the different accounts. M. de Puisaye makes appeals and refers to authorities which are respectable: but where the truth lies we cannot determine, till his relation shall have undergone examination by some competent and impartial person, who was an eye-witness of the dismal scene.

To the account here given of the zeal and courage of our brave sailors, in rescuing the forlorn royalists from the hands of their relentless enemies, we can allot full credit. 'These British officers,' says M. de Puisaye, 'whom the most execrable ingratitude has charged with rejoicing in the loss of those of the French navy, landed under the very fire of the enemy, with an intrepidity which the desire of rescuing their fellow-men from death could alone inspire. The captains themselves conducted their boats, and, amid showers of musket-balls and grape-shot, disputed with each other who should save the most victims. Captain Keates particularly distinguished himself on this occasion. He went and returned to the shore five or six times; and each time he brought as many of the unhappy beings as his boat would contain. Five or six hundred victims were thus snatched from the fangs of their destroyers.'

The impression which these volumes leave on the mind with respect to the weakness and incapacity of the Bourbon Princes, and the abominable intrigues and cabals with which they are beset, render every hope as to their restoration wild and preposterous. Besides this result, those who have the requisite patience to read through the work will pick up much loose and desultory information with respect to revolutionary France; and indeed no one, who would inform himself of the height to which the war of the Vendée once attained, should omit to give it a perusal. Jo.

ART. VIII. *Réfutation d'un Libelle*, &c.; *i. e.* Refutation of a Defamatory Libel promulgated by M. Beziade d'Avaray, under the Title of "a Report to His Most Christian Majesty, published with his Permission, followed by an Answer to the Count Joseph de Puisaye." 8vo. pp. 88. Budd. 1809.

THIS is a reply from M. de Puisaye to a pamphlet that professes to answer the volume of which we have just given an account. As we have not seen M. d'Avaray's performance, we can give no opinion on the matters in dispute between the parties: but M. de Puisaye states that 'his opponent having for the last 20 years precluded the access of truth to his royal master, whom he has deceived and outraged, he (M. de P.) has no other means of chastising his insolence, than that of exposing his conduct to public view.' — The endeavour of M. Bertrand de Molleville to reconcile these furious combatants heightens the good opinion which every thing that we have seen of that respectable person has impressed on our minds; and the testimony

testimony which he bears in favour of M. de Puisaye will incline many to think well of that gentleman, who, like ourselves, are incapable of deciding on controversies that are connected with so many vile intrigues.

The Count de Puisaye accuses M. d'Avaray of having prevented a counter-revolution in France by circulating high royalist maxims, such as "*si veut le roi, si veut la loi. Le roi pardonnera, mais les Parlemens feront justice* *;" and those miserable beings, he says, look elsewhere than to their own bad faith, and the abuse which they have made of the King's name and confidence, for the causes which have barred against him the avenue to the throne, and which have perpetuated the sufferings and privations of his followers. He gives passages from the letters of agents in the service of the French Princes, declaratory of the opinions which they entertained of the British ministry and the English nation, at the time when the latter were actually engaged in supporting their cause. These agents are said to have acted from the instructions and under the directions of M. d'Avaray.

"Pitt only seeks to complete the ruin of France, and not to restore the Bourbon family."

"Pitt only makes a mockery of the Princes. A civil war will prolong the Revolution, and the vengeance of Pitt."

"Such are the atrocities of the English, that it is necessary to be on our guard against them."

The same agents say that they rejoiced that "they had inspired the Chouans and Vendeans with a distrust of the English."

Charette wrote to the royal council that "Puisaye and the English should have nothing to do in Brittany."

M. de Puisaye transmitted by respectable hands very important memorials to Louis XVIII. at Blankenburgh: but the bearers of his communications wrote to him that, having ascertained the dispositions and biasses of the council, they did not hesitate to suppress many things in his notes and his last memorial of demands; because, say they, "we are satisfied that, if we had not, we should have been sent back without having been heard."

Can this monarch not see with his own eyes into the few matters that press on his attention; or at least has not the sad state of his affairs convinced him of the necessity of employing the most able and faithful among his adherents? Can we wonder at the hopeless situation to which he has been reduced?

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* "What the King wills the law wills; the King will pardon, but the Parliaments will punish."

The imbecility of the Bourbons, we must repeat, seems to have been a more serious obstacle to any change in their favour, than the power and good-fortune of their opponents. To us it appears to indicate extreme want of wisdom in the councils of the unhappy Prince, that he allowed the work to be made public to which the tract before us is an answer. These pages, and the volumes of M. de Puisaye, shew that, strange as it may sound, the Court of Louis XVIII. has been scarcely less the scene of intrigues and cabals, than those of powerful existing governments. Jo.

ART. IX. *Caledonia:* or, an Account, Historical and Topograpic, of North Britain; from the most ancient to the present Times: with a Dictionary of Places, Chorographical and Philological. In Four Volumes. By George Chalmers, F.R.S. and S.A. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 907. 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THE public are here presented with a monument of the indefatigable industry of Mr. Chalmers; few writers have appeared in the vast field of general and national antiquities with bolder pretensions; and if numerous quotations, endless references, and intrepid decisions, are indications of eminence, we should be warranted to infer that not many have preceded him in this line to whom he is inferior. Whatever his readers may think, he seems to be fully persuaded that his present efforts and researches have been attended with extraordinary success; and he is himself confident that 'he has ascertained who were the aborigines of Caledonia, by evidence which comes near to demonstration:' as well as 'that, without appealing to doubtful authorities, he has traced the Roman transactions in North Britain, and has illustrated the obscure histories of the Picts and Scots from such satisfactory documents as convey moral certainties.' Should it be alleged that all this has been already done, and that he has only adopted and fortified conclusions which had been previously drawn, it would perhaps be difficult for him to obviate the remark, because the proof of it may be deduced from his own admissions; yet if in this respect we cannot allow him any great share of originality, we do not deny that the points for which he contends are plausibly urged, well reasoned, and backed by a host of authorities.

While justice, however, will be generally rendered to the laborious writer with respect to this part of his work, many readers will complain that so great a portion of this massy volume is devoted to facts and investigations which are altogether

together imaginary, or at best extremely doubtful and wholly unsatisfactory. He will probably meet this charge by asking, if we are to reject every thing that has a tincture of fable from modern compilations, are we to overlook altogether what national vanity craves, and what national dignity would seem to sanction: may it not be that, though the facts are disguised, in substance they are well founded; that, with the fictions, real traits of manners are mingled; that the legend shews the spirit of the times; and that the whole may be illustrative of the more authentic parts of history? He will perhaps also observe that the authorities, which we most reverence, sanction the practice of prefixing early traditional accounts to the authentic relations of history. Should it be contended, however, that he ought to have been more concise while treating of these matters, we know not what defence he could satisfactorily advance; since few of his readers, we apprehend, will agree with him in thinking that, in the vast space which even Lord Hailes seemed to consign to obscurity and fable, Mr. Chalmers has enlightened the one or dispelled the other.

A passage in the preface will furnish us with the author's plan, and with his own notion of his atchievements:

'I was ambitious, I will avow, to offer my countrymen the *ancient history* of Scoland, elaborated into detail, and illustrated into light; without regarding previous opinions, or fearing contentious opposition; without dreading difficulties, or apprehending disappointment. I have divided my work, without regarding fantastical conceits of fabulous epochs, into such periods, as were analogous to the genuine history of each successive people. The *Roman period*, extending from Agricola's arrival, in North-Britain, A.D. 80, to the abdication of the Roman authority, in A.D. 446, forms the first book, from its priority in time, as well as precedence in importance. In discussing this interesting subject, I wasnot contentwith previous authorities. I engaged intelligent persons to survey Roman roads, to inspect Roman stations, and to ascertain doubtful points of Roman transactions. I have thus been enabled to correct the mistakes of former writers, on those curious topicks. Much perhaps cannot be added to what has been now ascertained, with respect to the engaging subject of the first book. Yes: since *Caledonia* was sent to the press, a discovery of some importance has been made: a very slight doubt remained, whether the Burghead of Moray had been a Roman station, as no Roman remains had there been found: but, this doubt has been completely solved by the recent excavation, within its limits, of a Roman bath. The first chapter of the following work will be found to be as much the first chapters of the annals of England, and of Ireland, as it is of Scotland. The *Pictish period* naturally succeeds the *former Book*, as it extends, from the Abdication of the Romans, in A.D. 446, to the overthrow of the Picts, in A.D. 843. It will be found to comprehend interesting events: the affairs of the Picts; the

the fate of the Romanized Britons; the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons on the Tweed; the adventures of the Scandinavians, in the Orkney, and Western Isles; the colonization of Argyle, by the Scots, from Ireland. It is the business of the *Pictish period*, to trace the singular history of all those people, various as they were in their lineages, throughout the different events of their obscure warfare, and the successive turns of their frequent changes: add to those topicks of peculiar interest the *introduction of Christianity*, which, in every age, and in every country, has produced such memorable effects. The *Scotish period*, forming the *third Book*, and extending from A.D. 843 to 1097, will be found to comprehend historic topicks of equal importance: the union of the Picts, and Scots, into one kingdom; the amalgamation of the ancient Britons of Strathclyde with both; the colonization of Galloway by the Irish; the annexation of Lothian to the Scotish kingdom; the history, both civil, and ecclesiastical, of all those people of various races, with notices of their antiquities, their languages, their learning, their laws; all these form historical matters of singular interest to rational curiosity, if they be investigated from facts, in contempt of fabulosity. The *fourth Book* contains the *Scoto-Saxon period*, which extends from A.D. 1097 to 1306, and which details many notices of varied importance. At the first, and at the second of those epochs, momentous revolutions took place, though they have passed unnoticed by the Scotish historians; and were unknown to the historiographer royal. With this period began a new dynasty of kings, who introduced new people, new manners, new usages, and new establishments. In this period, the Saxon colonization of proper Scotland was begun. In this period, was the Scotican church reformed. In it, was introduced the municipal law of North-Britain, in the place of Celtic customs. In this period, originated her agriculture, her commerce, and shipping, and fishery, her manufactories, and her coins. The beginning of this period formed the pivot, on which turned the Celtic government of ancient ages, and the Anglo-Norman polity of subsequent times. Yet, is it of a period so crowded with changes, and so varied with novelties, that the late historiographer royal says, "the events, which then happened, may be slightly touched, but merit no particular inquiry." But, I have dwelt on those revolutions, and have marked every change By a vast detail from *the Chartularies*, in respect to the civil history, from 1097 to 1306, to the ecclesiastical annals, to law, to manners, and to domestic economy, I have tried to ascertain every interesting circumstance, and to render the national annals of that interesting period quite familiar to every reader: and, to give completeness to the whole, are added supplemental views of subsequent times, which have their details to instruct, and their curiosity to amuse. Such is the plan, which I have formed, and essayed to execute, for reforming, and ascertaining the ancient history of North-Britain, which has been so long distorted by controversy, obscured by fable, and disregarded by fastidiousness.'

Apprehensive that the unwieldy size of this production might deter persons from sitting down to the perusal of it,

Mr.

Mr. Chalmers seems to have introduced the following paragraph in order to rouse and stimulate their curiosity :

'It is the common complaint of intelligent readers, that there is nothing *new* in history ; as the same facts are again served up, in different forms, with some interspersions of sentiment. It is very seldom, indeed, that any history contains so many new facts, new discoveries, and new documents, as the following account of North-Britain discloses. What can be more novel, than ascertaining *the aborigines* of the country, by proofs, which are as curious in themselves, as they are decisive in their inferences. Roman camps, in North-Britain, had been already brought before the curious eye : but, it is quite new, to show their location amidst the prior forts of the Britons, for some hostile purpose. Roman roads, and Roman stations, had been before mentioned by tourists, and traced by antiquaries : but, it is altogether new, to investigate their policy ; and to form the whole of the Roman transactions, in Caledonia, into a connected body of genuine history, during four interesting centuries. The Picts had been sometimes casually mentioned : but, it is quite a novelty, to give the history of the Pictish people, their lineage, their language, their antiquities : it was known from Bede, that the Picts had defeated, and slain the Northumbrian Egfrid, in the battle of Nectan's Mere : but, it is altogether new, to ascertain the true site of that consequential conflict. The genuine chronology of the Scotish kings, their civil wars, their hostilities with the Picts ; the Scotish laws, and literature, are all novelties. The colonization of Scotland, by the Anglo-Saxons, Anglo-Normans, and Flemings, comprehending the origin of the Stewarts, and the descent of the Douglases, is quite new. The history of law, during the twelfth, and thirteenth centuries, including the origin, and epoch of the *Regiam Majestatem ;* the history of manners in this period ; the account of agriculture, of manufactures, of trade, and of the various topicks, which are connected with them ; are entirely new. The whole volume may be regarded as a novelty, considering its arrangment, its matter, and its documents. Few histories can be found, wherein there are so many charters called for, so many records avouched, so many facts ascertained, and so many documents quoted.'

Having thrown out these allurements, he ventures to inform us that the present volume is only a part of the entertainment which he is preparing, and that it is to be followed by three others (perhaps of the same unwieldy dimensions) ; the proposed contents of these he also gives, and we should deem it wrong to withhold them from our readers :

'Yet, this volume, which comprehends the history of so many people, during ages of darkness, does not comprehend my whole plan, for rectifying the annals, and ascertaining the antiquities of CALEDONIA. I propose to offer to the public three other volumes, successively, and soon, if my health, and spirits should continue. As the present volume has given the history of the several people, the next volume will form a DICTIONARY OF PLACES, *Chorographical*

phical and *Philological;* for the investigation of the various languages, which have been ever spoken within that country. This volume will be immediately sent to the press. The two subsequent volumes will contain the local history of every shire, in Scotland, upon a new plan, and from the most authentic informations. The materials for all these are already collected; and they are mostly all worked up: so that there is little to prevent me from sending the whole to the printers, except that, I should certainly feel this circumstance too fatiguing, and the public might perhaps regard it, as too repulsive.'

Mr. C. gives his sanction to the opinion that the Celts originally peopled the whole extent of Europe: but he observes that they were no were found in large assemblages.

'While Asia, and Africa, shew several examples of empires, vast, and flourishing, in the earliest times, we only see, among the *Celts*, clans, disconnected from habit, and feeble from disunion. At the recent period, when the Romans entered Gaul, with whatever design of revenge, or conquest, that extensive country, the appropriate seat of the Celtic people, was cantoned among sixty tribes, who were little united by polity, and still less conjoined by the accustomed habits of natural affection. Wherever we turn our inquisitive eyes on the wide surface of Europe, we look, in vain, for a Celtic empire, however the Celtic people may have agreed, in their language, in their worship, and in their customs. Yet, at the dawn of history, we see the European nations, who dwelt to the westward of those waters, which flow eastward to the Euxine, denominated *the Celtæ*.

'Disunited, however, as the Celtic clans were, and dispersed, in their several positions, they often made themselves felt. During the reign of the elder Tarquin, if we may believe Livy, more than five centuries and a half before our era, the Gauls, under Belovesus, seized the country on the Po; while another swarm, under Segovesus, settled in Germany. Four hundred years before our common era, the Gauls invaded Italy, in such a numerous body, as to evince the extent, and populousness of the country, whence they proceeded. Brennus, their leader, sacked Rome. They were repulsed by the genius of Camillus; but they were not dismayed by their disaster. They again over-ran Italy by a second invasion. And it required all the valour, and all the skill, of the Roman armies, to repress the daring of the Celtic people. The Gauls overspread Thrace, and plundered the temples of Greece, whatever genius, and force could be opposed to their inroads. They invaded Asia, which had already acknowledged the superior character of European firmness, and discipline; and which gave their irresistible invaders a settlement, that was long known, by the vivid remembrance of their perseverance, and their prowess.

'Those intimations of history seem to demonstrate, that western Europe, throughout its wide extent, was already filled with Celtic inhabitants. It was the superabundance of its populousness, which discharged itself, during successive ages, in quest of plunder, or in pursuit of settlement. It is thus apparent, from every notice of history, and every specification of geography, that *the Celtæ* were the aboriginal

aboriginal people of Europe, throughout its ample limits. Yet, has it been debated by ingenuity, and inquired by learning, whether the Celtæ, or the Scythes, were the most ancient people; as if there could be priority of origin, while they were both descended from a common, though distant origin. It is of much more importance to inquire when, and on what occasion, the Celtæ, who were thus, for ages, the sole inhabitants, as they were the original colonists of Europe, became mingled with a dissimilar people, either by colonization, or conquest.'

We agree with the author in thinking that a history of the several Celtic nations is a desideratum. Pelloutier is a writer of great research, but he proceeds on an erroneous system.—Mr. C. thus concisely states his opinion in respect to their successors the Goths:

'That Gothic colonists came into Western Europe, from whatever country, at some period, we know, from the prevalence of their speech, which has almost superseded the aboriginal tongue. But, whence came they? is a question, that has been often asked; yet has not hitherto been answered. With a view to that question, we must throw our inquisitive eyes over the instructive course of the Danube, from its spring among the Celtæ, to its issue into the Euxine, among the Getæ. There, we may see, on the banks of the Danube, Dacia, the country of the Daces, Getia, the region of the Getes, and Moesia, which, in after ages, gave subsistence, and a name to the Moeso-Goths. On the northern side of the Danube, flowed the sister stream of the Tyras, which gave rise to the name of the Tyro Goths, who lived either upon its banks, or within its isles; and who, in subsequent times, were denominated by Ptolemy the Tyran-Goths. In his time, the appellation of Goths, by the philological changes of seven centuries, had displaced the more ancient name of Getes: and there can, therefore, be no reasonable doubt, whether the Goths were any other than the same people, who, in more early times, had been known, by the kindred designation of Getes, and Daces. Thus, the Goths, the Tyro-Goths, and the Moeso-Goths; the Dacians, and the Getes, were the same people, who, like other barbarous tribes, in successive ages, and in varying situations, were differently denominated by writers, who viewed them, in different lights.

'The Gothic tribes, however denominated, formed one of the aboriginal people of Europe. On this event, history is silent; but, philology is instructive. The Gothic language is certainly derived from a common origin with the most ancient languages of the European world; the Greek, the Latin, and the Celtic. Ancient Thrace, comprehending Getia, Dacia, and Moesia, was the original country of the Goths. Every inquiry tends to demonstrate, that the tribes, who originally came into Europe, by the Hellespont, were remarkably different, in their persons, their manners, and their language, from those people, who, in after ages, migrated from Asia, by the more devious course, around the northern extremities of the Euxine, and its kindred lake. This striking variety must for ever evince the

difference

difference between the Gothic, and the Scythic hords, however they may have been confounded, by the inaccuracy of some writers, or by the design of others.'

It is contended by this writer that the whole population of our island, at the time of the Roman invasion, consisted only of Celts; and the aborigines of the north of the island he supposes to have proceeded from those who first peopled the south. He states that

'At the epoch of Agricola's invasion, North-Britain may be viewed as a mirror, that reflects back the condition, in which was South-Britain, at the more distant era, when Julius Cæsar first invaded the shores of our island. This faithful mirror shows also the state of Gaul, when the Roman ambition enterprized the conquest of the common parent of the British nations. Those kindred countries were each cantonized into many tribes, who were only connected together, by the slight ties of a common origin, similar customs, and the same speech. Caledonia, in its largest extent, from the Tweed and the Eden, on the south, to Caithness point on the north, was possessed by one-and-twenty tribes of Aboriginal Britons, who were populous, in proportion to the greater, or less fertility of the districts, which they severally occupied: the tribes, on the west coast, must have been fewer in numbers, than the more potent clans, on the eastern shore. Every tribe enjoyed the ancient privilege of being each independent of the whole; and who only united under a Pendragon, when danger pressed, and necessity demanded the authority of a single person, for the safety of the whole people, according to the Celtic principle of disunited independence.'

The position, that the earliest inhabitants of North Britain were Celts, is here inferred from the names of the natural features of the country, its mountains, promontories, harbours, rivers, and waters; from the resemblance in its rights of worship and sepulture to those of other Celtic nations; and from its cromlechs, carnedds, and other similar monuments which are found in it, and which are discovered in every country that the Celts inhabited.

'It were easy, (says Mr. Chalmers,) to show, that the remains of Druidism are more numerous in North, than in South Britain. They do not equal, though they certainly emulate, the stupendous works of the same kind, on Salisbury-Plain, and at Abury. They were all undoubtedly the works of a people, who were actuated by great activity of religious principle, and possessed amazing ingenuity of invention, and power of execution. Those monuments also evince, that the Druids enjoyed, and exerted, all the knowledge, and influence, which have been attributed to them by history, in ancient, and in modern, times. From the foregoing investigations, we may perceive, that the stone monuments in North, and South Britain, as they are exactly the same, must necessarily have been erected, by the same people, and nearly in the same age. It is in vain, then, for sceptics

sceptics to talk vaguely of there never having been Druids, in North-Britain, where so many stone monuments attest their existence, and exhibit their labours.'

In a very elaborate manner, Mr. C. applies the results of modern antiquarian and geographical researches in Scotland to elucidate Tacitus's account of the campaigns of Agricola in that country; and he prosecutes with great minuteness of detail the subsequent transactions of the Romans, during the whole period of their having continued to hold the government of Caledonia.

The extract which we shall now transcribe introduces that people, of whom such frequent mention is made at the period of the departure of the Romans from this island, and for some centuries after, the Picts. Mr. Chalmers follows those authorities which represent them as being the unsubdued inhabitants of Caledonia, who resided to the North of the Roman settlement:

'Meantime, the five tribes of provincial Britons, who lived within the northern wall, were too inconsiderable to be much interested, in the revolutions of the Roman world: but, they were not perhaps too poor to be the objects of envy to less opulent clans, who sometimes plundered what they wanted industry to acquire, and civilization to enjoy. To this cause it was probably owing, that Constance found it necessary to come into Britain, during the year 306, to repel the Caledonians, *and other Picts*. This is the first time that the *Picts* appear in history. The Caledonian people had often been mentioned before, by classic authors, under other names. The *Caledonians* were, on this occasion, called *Picts*, owing to their peculiar seclusion from the Roman provincials, on the south of the walls: and they were often mentioned, during the decline of the Roman empire, by orators, historians, and poets, by that significant appellation. The name of *Picts* has continued, to the present day, the theme of antiquarian disputes, and the designation of national history. That the *Picts* were Caledonians, we thus have seen, in the mention of classic authors, during three centuries: that the Caledonians were the North-Britons, who fought Agricola, at the foot of the Grampian, we know from the nature of the events, and the attestation of Tacitus: that the Northern Britons of the first century were the descendants of the Celtic Aborigines, who were the same people, as the southern Britons, during the earliest times, has been satisfactorily proved, as a moral certainty.'

The next passage brings us acquainted with their conquerors, who were destined to give name to the country which they invaded.

'The year 360 is the epoch of the first appearance of the Scotish people, in the pages of the Roman annals. Ammianus, who mentions them, at present, joins the Scots with the Picts, as if they had formed

formed one army, though they had no connection whatever, by lineage, or in neighbourhood, or in interests. The historian himself, indeed, speaks of the Scots, in the year 367, as an erratic people, who spread much waste by their predatory excursions. These descriptions do not apply, with any truth, to a tribe, who resided in Britain: and, indeed, the contemporary authors of that age speak of the Scots, as a transmarine people, who invaded the Roman provincials, from the sea; and who came from Ireland, which was their native isle. The *Scots* were unknown, as a people, during the first, and second centuries, if we may regard, as satisfactory evidence, the uniform silence of the classic authors of Rome, and Greece, during those learned ages. The *Scoticæ gentes*, the Scotish people, were first mentioned by Porphyry, who flourished, at the end of the third century: yet, were not the *Scots* mentioned by Eumenius, the orator, though he was the first to notice the *Picts* of North-Britain, and to distinguish the *Hiberni* of Ireland.'

The history of Caledonia, from its partial subjugation by Agricola to the appearance of the Picts, having occupied the first of the four books into which this volume is divided, the author then states the subjects of which the second book treats:

'The *Pictish Period*, extending from the abdication of the Romans in A. D. 446, to the overthrow of the Pictish government, in 843 A. D., will be found, from its notices, to comprehend interesting events. At the epoch of Agricola's invasions, the ample extent of North-Britain was inhabited, as we have seen, by one-and-twenty Gaelic clans, who were connected by such slight ties, as scarcely to enjoy a social state. At the period of the Roman abdication, there remained, in North-Britain, only one race of men, the genuine descendants of those Caledonian clans: the sixteen tribes, who ranged unsubdued, beyond the wall of Antonine, under the appropriate denomination of *the Picts*; the five southern tribes of kindred people, who, as they remained under the Roman jurisdiction, seem to have been considerably civilized, by the adoption of Roman arts; but, the *Angles* had not yet arrived within the Ottadinian territories, on the Tweed; and, the Scots still continued, in Ireland, their original country. The sixteen tribes of proper Picts acquired, from their independence, higher importance, when they were no longer overawed by the Roman power; and they will be immediately found to have been the dominating nation, throughout four centuries of the North-British annals. The five Romanized tribes of *Valentia*, who had long enjoyed the instructive privilege of Roman citizenship, will soon appear to have assumed the character of an independent people, who established for themselves their own government. Two new races of men ere long arrived, within the Caledonian regions, who not only saddened the enjoyments, but at length eclipsed the glories of the Caledonian Britons. The *Angles* early settled on the Tweed; and erewhile obliged the Ottadini to relinquish for ever, as we shall see, their beloved domains. At the end of half a century, the

the *Scots* of Ireland colonized Argyle; and spreading themselves over the circumjacent districts, superseded the Pictish government, as we shall perceive, after the bloody struggles of three hundred and forty years. It must be the business of this *Pictish Period* of the North-British annals, to trace the singular history of all those people; the *Caledonian Picts*, the *Romanized Britons*, the *Angles* of Lothian, the *Scots* of Argyle; throughout the various events of their obscure warfare, and the successive turns of their revolutionary changes.'

Mr. C. then proceeds to observe that

'The lineage of the Pictish people has been disputed, though without any valid reason, as if there could be a doubt, whether they were of a Celtic, or of a Gothic origin. But, their genealogy may be clearly traced, through three consecutive changes; from the Gauls to the Britons; from the Britons to the Caledonians; and from the Caledonians to the Picts; thus changing their names, but not their nature. During many an age, before our common era, Gaul was the splendid scene, wherein the Celts displayed, before the intelligent eyes of the Roman people, the peculiarities of their religion, the originality of their customs, and the singularity of their manners. The Gaelic Celts, who emigrated to Britain, brought with them, into this island, all those distinguishing features, with their original language. One of the most striking points of comparison, between Gaul, and Britain, was the geographical divisions of the country, and the civil institutions of the people. Gaul appears to have been, in every age, cantoned among many clans, who were each independent of the whole. South-Britain was, in the same manner, divided among many tribes. North-Britain, at the memorable invasion of Agricola, was cantonized among one-and-twenty clans, who seldom united, in any common measure, as they were involved in eternal warfare. In Gaul, in South, and in North-Britain, we may perceive a strong principle of division, the peculiar characteristic of the Celts; producing the direful effects of perpetual enmity, during domestic peace, and constant weakness, amidst foreign war. This common principle of the Celtic people, which prevented the association of large communities, and obstructed the establishment of a vigorous government, has continued to vex, and enfeeble, their descendants, in Gaul, and in Britain, even down to our own times.

'There was another principle, which was peculiar to those Celtic people, and which has involved their affairs, both within Gaul, and throughout Britain, in lasting darkness. They made it a constant rule never to commit any thing to writing, according to a settled maxim, that it was more glorious to perform great actions, than to write, in good language. The *observance* of that rule, whether it proceeded from military ardour, or from superstitious *observances*, has covered the antiquities of their British descendants with undiminished mists.

'We have, however, seen *distinctly*, during the first, and second, centuries, North-Britain inhabited by one-and-twenty *distinct* tribes. The most powerful of those clans, the *Caledonians*, seem early to have given a general denomination to the whole. In the succinct biogtaphy

of Tacitus, those tribes, who opposed Agricola, are either denominated *Britanni*, or Horestii, or Caledonii, whose country was, analogically, denominated by him *Caledonia*. The origin of all those Roman names are [*is*] to be found, as we have seen, in the language of the British people themselves. And, the celebrated appellation, Caledonia, was merely Romanized, from the *Celyddon* of the Britons, that owed its origin to the woods, which spread, in ancient times, over the interior, and western parts of the country, lying beyond the Forth and Clyde; and which were mentioned emphatically, before the age of Tacitus, by Pliny, as the *Caledonian forest*.'

The author shews that the names of the Pictish kings and that of their capital are significant in the British language, and thence infers an argument in favour of their British origin. A long list of topographical names is also adduced for the same purpose.

We are led to make the succeeding quotation, because it embraces the principal conclusions of Mr. Chalmers in reference to the present subject:

'That Britain was gradually colonized, from the nearest coast of Gaul, is an historical fact, which seems to be agreed upon, by scholars, from J. Cæsar, and Tacitus, Buchanan, and Camden, to Stillingfleet, and Schoepflin. That the several districts of the same island should be peopled, by the same tribes, is a probability, which may be carried up to certainty, by the satisfactory evidence of the perpetual resemblance of the same language, religion, and manners. Yet, paradox supposes it to be more likely, that the northern parts of our island were planted, by migrants, from beyond the ocean, than from beyond the Tweed, during ages, when the art of ship-building was unknown. For maintaining that certainty, proofs, which come near to demonstration, have been submitted to the reader, that every part of this island was settled, originally, by the same Gaelic tribes. It is a *truism*, then, that our whole island was planted, by the same British people. And, against this *truism*, and that demonstration, Tacitus cannot be allowed to make his conjectures, nor Bede, to inform us, *from the report of others*, that the second people, who settled, in this island, came from Scythia. Subsequent writers, who raised a superstructure of sentiments on the *opinion* of Tacitus, and the *hearsay* of Bede, appear thus to build on a very slight foundation.

'The British tribes cannot be dispossessed, unless by the introduction of a new people, whose arrival, and conquests, must be evidenced by stronger proofs, than paradoxical theories. The British people, in fact, remained undispossessed of their ancient land, during the first, and second centuries. The pristine topography of North-Britain, as it is exhibited, by Ptolemy, and Richard, ascertains that decisive truth. In them, we see a thousand traces of a Celtic people: but, of a Gothic people, it is impossible to perceive a single trace. While topography speaks thus to the conviction of every reader, history is silent, concerning Gothic migrations, in those times, into the British islands, or even into western Europe.

'The *Caledonians* were the inhabitants of North-Britain, during the first century, as we learn from Tacitus. It was the Caledonians, who fought Agricola, at the foot of the Grampian. It was the Caledonians, who finally repulsed the Roman legions. If the inhabitants of North-Britain, during the first century, were British tribes of a Celtic lineage, the Caledonians must necessarily have been Celtic Britons. And, the context of Tacitus attests, that the Britons of North, and South-Britain, were, in that age, the same people.

'The Caledonians were immediately succeeded by the Picts; or rather, the Picts were the old Caledonians, under a new name. The classic authors, who lived during the third century, when the Caledonians first appeared, under the appellation of Picts, are so positive, that they were the same people, that even polemicks have acknowledged this significant truth. The truest supporters of the Gothic system, concerning the Pictish lineage, are forced to confess, that the Caledonians, and Picts, were the same people. The acknowledgment, which has just been made, of the *sameness* of the Picts, and Caledonians, is fatal to the *Gothic system*: for, as it has been settled, by a thousand facts, as a moral certainty, that the North-British tribes were a Celtic people, during the second, and first centuries, the Caledonians of those times must, necessarily, have been British Celts: a system, which pretends to outface a thousand facts, involves in it a million of absurdities: the fundamental truth, that the Picts, and Caledonians, the Britons and Gauls, were the same Celtic people, is strongly supported by moral certainties; while the Gothic system is made to stand on unauthorized assertion, and unavailable inference.'

The work of a writer who has misled many persons, by the confidence and hardihood of his assertions, is thus characterized by Mr. Chalmers. Alluding to the controversy between the Macphersons and Whitaker, he states that

'This conflict had scarcely ceased, when there appeared "An Enquiry into the History of Scotland, preceding 1056," (by John Pinkerton, in 1789.) By a meretricious display of authorities, etymologies, and topography, he professes to show the opinions of those erudite writers, Camden, Selden, and Lloyd, to be false, ignorant, and childish. In order to fasten this censure upon such scholars, he dedicates a whole chapter to prove that, "the Northern Britons, Caledonians, and Picts, were one and the same people." A superficial reader would necessarily suppose, from this proof, that our Inquirer coincided, in opinion, with those learned men, who are said to talk falsely, ignorantly, and childishly: for, they maintained, that the Northern Britons were the same people, as the Southern Britons; that the Caledonians were the descendants of the British colonists, from South Britain; that the Picts were merely the offspring of the Caledonians, under a new name, and a different aspect. He has, however, a thousand distinctions, to shield himself, from the charge of contradiction. The Northern Britons were not, in his opinion, Cambro-Britons. The Caledonians, and Picts were, indeed, the same people; but, they were Goths, from Scandia, who expelled

the Cambro-Britons, about two centuries before Christ. But, the research and learning, of two centuries, have not brought yet any proof of the migration of a Gothic colony into North-Britain, till the fifth age, when the Angles arrived upon the Tweed. Every attempt to prove this improbability has egregiously failed; because falsehood cannot be proved: Stillingfleet had learning, and our Inquirer exerted his diligence; but they failed, in establishing their Gothic migrations; because such migrations never happened. Suffice it to say, adds our Inquirer, "that every writer, who mentions the origin of the Picts, till 1707, when Lhuyd's Archaiologia appeared, derive them from Scandinavia, excepting *Camden alone*, who was himself far from learned. The writers, who are thus opposed, by our Inquirer, to Camden, who is mistakingly supposed to have stood alone, in maintaining the Cambro-British origin of the Picts, are Nennius, the Saxon Chronicler, Geoffry of Monmouth, Giraldus Cambrensis, O'Flaherty, Usher, Stillingfleet, and Sheringham. Our Inquirer was immediately opposed by Riston, who maintained, with equal learning, and labour, the *Celticism* of the Picts; yet, acknowledged that, it would require a volume, to expose the errors, to exhibit the contradictions, and to confute the system of *the Inquiry*, 1789.'

As far as authority may decide the controversy, it is not a matter of small moment that

'The latest investigator of the *Pictish question* is the erudite Edward King, the curious author of the *Munimenta Antiqua*. After investigating the stone monuments, and the hill-forts, the ancient castles, and the barbarous manners of North-Britain, he gives it as his judgment, "that the Picts were descended from the aboriginal Britons." This profound antiquary concurs with the late Doctor Henry, in saying that, "we hear nothing of any invasion of the Caledonians, by any such distinct people, as the Picts," and he, therefore, concludes, as Innes has inferred before him, "that this denomination was merely a *new name*, which was given to the *old settlers*."

How indignant must Mr. Pinkerton be to find his bold theories thus swept away, his descent from his god-like Goths denied, and his origin traced to the contemptible Celts! How is it that he has remained so long silent?

In the author's account of the interesting kingdom of Cambria, he does not fail to pay due tribute to the hero of British annals, the far-famed Arthur; and in a note he gives a list of the numerous places, by which North-British topography bears testimony to the fame of the renowned Pendragon.

We regret that we cannot enter into Mr. Chalmers's elaborate elucidation of another controverted subject, the origin and migration of the Scots, and their subsequent fortunes in North-Britain; and that we are also obliged to pass over his account of the introduction of Christianity into these regions.

regions. His criticisms, however, on the relations which have reached us concerning the Culdees, are more indicative of courtesy to the dominant religion of the south, than of any profound research into North-British ecclesiastical antiquities.

Book III. of this volume treats of the union of the Picts and Scots. This part the author denominates :

'The *Scotish Period* of the *Account of North-Britain*, extending from the accession of Keneth MacAlpin in A.D. 843, to the demise of Donal-bane, in 1097 ; which, however dark, will be found to contain several events of great importance, in the North British annals. The union of two separate nations into one monarchy, as it augmented the power of both, and by the ascendency of the Scots, gave at length their name to the common country, must be peculiarly interesting to rational curiosity. In this period, we shall perceive the Strathclyde kingdom of the ancient Britons merge in the Scotish nation. We shall see, meantime, the antient territories of the Selgovæ, the Novantes, and Damnii, colonized by successive emigrants from Ireland, who gave their settlements the name of *Galloway* ; and who, by a strange fortune, became known, under the appropriate appellation of the ancient Picts. Cumberland will be found to have sunk after the suppression of its reguli, into an appendage of the Scotish crown, by the doubtful ties of an obscure title. After some bloody struggles, throughout this period of more than two centuries and a half, Lothian, we shall see, annexed to Scotland, by the lasting connection of rightful cession, and mutual advantage. We shall behold the circumjacent isles to be at length, felt, as neighbours, and feared, as opponents. It must be the business of this period, then, to trace the history of all those countries, and people, from different sources ; to illustrate their singular laws from new principles : to investigate their manners, and customs, from analogous proofs ; and to ascertain their antiquities, and language, from a temperament of philology, with interspersions of history.'

In his account of the union of these two rival nations, Mr. Chalmers closely follows Innes ; and in our opinion he cannot commit himself to a more sure guide.

The able recapitulation of the evidence in favour of the Celtic extraction of the original inhabitants of North-Britain, which we find in this part of the work, can leave little doubt of the fact in an unbiassed mind. It is too long to be here inserted, and it does not admit of being abridged.

During this period occur the successive reigns of Duncan and Macbeth, around which our immortal bard has thrown an interest that will last as long as matchless displays of genius shall continue to charm and delight. Of the original of that sublime heroine of the drama, whom we have so often seen more than realize all that the poet himself conceived, we have here this account ;

'Kenneth IV., while reigning lawfully, was slain in 1003 A.D., as we have perceived, by Malcolm II., at the battle of Monivaird. Kenneth IV. left a son, Boedhe, the heir of his rights, and the successor to his wrongs. Seeing how unable he was to contend with the slayer of his father, he seems to have provided for his safety, by his insignificance: and, he left a son, and a daughter, to enjoy his pretensions, and to avenge his injuries: his son, however, was slain, in 1033, by one of the last orders of the aged Malcolm. His daughter was the Lady Gruoch, who married, for her first husband, Gilcomgain, the maormor of Moray, a person of the first consequence, next to the royal family; and, for her second husband, she married the never-to-be-forgotten Macbeth. The Lady Gruoch, with great strength of character, had the most afflictive injuries constantly rankling at her heart; a grandfather dethroned, and slain; a brother assassinated; and her husband burnt, within his castle, with fifty of his friends; herself a fugitive, with Lulach, her infant son. Such were the injuries, which prompted the Lady Gruoch's vengeful thoughts; and "which filled her, from the crown to the toe, topful of direst cruelty." Amidst her misfortunes, she married Macbeth, the maormor of Ross, who was then in the prime of life; and who was of still greater power, than her first husband: for, after his marriage with this injured woman, he became maormor of Moray, during the infancy of Lulach. If Macbeth was, indeed, as we are assured by Boece, and Buchanan, and Lesley, the son of Doada, a daughter of Malcolm II., he might well enter into competition with Duncan, for the crown. And, we thus perceive, that Macbeth wanted "no spur to prick the sides of his intent." This *intent* was at length carried into effect, by the insidiousness of assassination, rather than the magnanimity of conflict.'

If our limits permitted, we should gladly subjoin the author's enumeration of the instances in which the drama has departed from reality, together with the topographical remarks by which he has illustrated it.

We now enter on the fourth or concluding book, and to us the most satisfactory in the volume. It treats of what the author calls the Scoto-Saxon period, which embraces the space from the year 1097 to 1306. During this epoch, happened one of the most singular as well as the most pleasing revolutions of any that are to be found in history. It was a revolution not produced by the rude and sanguinary hand of force, but an instance of voluntary homage paid by untutored barbarism to superior knowlege and civillzation; an instance of a rude people incorporating with itself more enlightened strangers, and adopting in a great measure their language, manners, and laws. The Anglo-Saxon ascendancy in North-Britain has been hitherto involved in much mystery: but the highly commendable industry of Mr. Chalmers has wholly unravelled it, not by plausible and ingenious conjectures, but by

by facts completely verified. He shews from charters and other authentic sources, that migrations from the southern to the northern part of the isle took place to a surprizing extent, though the ordinary historians have too little adverted to the fact; yet the catalogue of them which is given in these pages is so large, that, in connection with other circumstances which are here related, they fully account for this rare phænomenon. Nearly all the great families of the North are descendants from Anglo-Saxon or Anglo-Norman emigrants from this part of the island, whom the Scotish Court tempted to fix themselves in their territory by large grants of lands to the settlers, their retainers, and dependents. Owing to the low state of culture, land in Scotland was at this time of little value, and the country very thinly inhabited; it must therefore be excellent policy in the government to colonize it with persons who were more advanced in the arts, particularly in agriculture; and such policy, as history states, was well understood and followed by several of the Scotish princes. This part of the work before us cannot be commended too highly; and it verifies the promise as to originality which was made by the author in his preface.

A very full and spirited account is given of the unworthy practices, and unprincipled proceedings, by which Edward I. attempted to render Scotland dependent on the crown of England; and Mr. Chalmers well states the changes which the Anglo-Saxon ascendancy occasioned in the civil and the ecclesiastical constitution of the state. We meet also with a very instructive and luminous chapter on the antient and modern laws of Scotland; and an able summary of Scotish affairs, from the termination of the Scoto-Saxon period to the present time, which strongly indicates the political bias of the writer, closes the volume.

Though in parts this production is very wearisome, still a great proportion of its contents not only enlightens but strongly interests the reader; and he who has the perseverance to struggle through the whole of it will be well rewarded for his labour. We have, indeed, one great fault to impute to it, an almost universal fault in modern publications, the neglect of revisal and finish; Mr. C.'s language being frequently defaced by repetitions, quaintnesses, and inaccuracies; and so overloaded with punctuation, that to observe all his commas and semicolons in reading it would often put a *full stop* to his meaning: but, taking it altogether, if the author meets with sufficient encouragement to complete his design, we do not hesitate to say that, in respect to the antiquities, history, and topography of Scotland, his work promises far to exceed any that has yet appeared.

ART. X. *The Reign of Charlemagne considered*, chiefly with Reference to Religion, Laws, Literature, and Manners. By Henry Card, A. M. of Pembroke College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 208. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IN our progress through general history, when we have passed the times of the Antonines and Trajans, the scene (with the exception of a few rare spots) becomes dark and dreary till we reach the epochs of Charlemagne and Alfred. The latter is perhaps the most remarkable and luminous, but attracts less notice because it was confined to a more limited space. Historians and compilers, when they arrive at the period of the revival of the new empire of the west, retard their march, depart from the high road, and make excursions into bye-paths; as it were to refresh themselves and to exhilirate their readers, after the toil of journeying along a track which presents to the eye nought but barren and desolate prospects. Hence it happens that we find little on record respecting Charlemagne, which is not to be found in some one of our meritorious compilers.

The author of the present volume is anxious to vindicate our countryman, the illustrious Alcuin, from the charge of being an enemy to pagan literature:

'We cannot,' he tells us, 'readily consent to imitate the credulity of some writers, who without the least examination have admitted the dislike of Alcuin to the ancient poets, as a point fully established, and of undoubted certainty. It will assuredly not be disputed, that the high name which Alcuin had acquired among his cotemporaries for his learning and piety, and the invariable respect that Charlemagne testified for his talents and virtues, and likewise for the promotion and diffusion of his plans of improvement, must have peculiarly concurred to raise up against him enemies equally powerful by their rank, and revengeful from their ignorance. These circumstances alone would justify us in believing that any attempt to injure his literary reputation would be secretly encouraged by those to whom he had rendered himself obnoxious, by the fame of his own works, as well as by his munificent patronage of learning. Accordingly we find him sometimes reproached for his want of attachment to the Roman classics, with a greater degree of vitulence than the subject could require or warrant. Of a turn of mind naturally serious and religious, it is easy to be imagined that in an advanced period of his age, all his studies were bent towards theology; but that he was a sincere and fervent admirer of that dignity, beauty, and elevation of sentiment, which is often to be found in profane authors, may be strikingly illustrated in this expression to Charlemagne; *Upon you it chiefly depends to convert Paris into a christian Athens.*

'Throughout indeed the writings and letters of Alcuin, frequent quotations are scattered from the ancient poets, which indicate that he perused them with no less pleasure than attention. His young friend

friend Angilbert had received the appellation of Homer in that learned circle which he was so instrumental in forming at the court of Charlemagne. Alcuin wrote to him at Rome to request that he would not fail to bring him some relics, and pleasantly added, "Si nihil attuleris, ibis, Homere, foras." Unquestionably therefore the man who in speaking upon a subject so grave and pious as the one above-mentioned, can cite a verse from Ovid's Art of Love, ought not to be represented as the implacable foe of the heathen poets.'

Mr. Card does not deem it beneath the dignity of history to record the time and the place of the first interview between Charlemagne and his preceptor; and accordingly he proceeds to state that

'Charlemagne first met Alcuin at Pavia in 781, upon his return from Rome, and was so struck with the wisdom of his discourse, that he earnestly requested him to fix his residence at his court as soon as he had accomplished his mission, namely, that of receiving the pall for the archbishop of York, which had lately been conferred on him by the pope. To an invitation so flattering Alcuin gave his consent, provided that he obtained the permission of his king and archbishop, and that he might also be allowed to revisit his country.

'Alcuin may, indeed, be justly regarded as a phenomenon for his age. If he had not sounded the depths, he had at least stepped into most paths of learning, and therefore was eminently qualified, from the versatility of his genius and the penetration of his judgment, to form and develope the taste of Charlemagne for the arts and sciences. In the study of logic, rhetoric, and astronomy, subjects that have such a peculiar tendency to sharpen, enlarge, and elevate the human capacity, Alcuin found a pupil whose high birth and almost invariable attention to the affairs of state, did not, however, prevent him from feeling and displaying an enthusiastic admiration of them. Had the preceptor been inflamed with ambition, from the great ascendancy that he had gained over Charlemage, he might safely have aspired to the rank of his minister. But far from employing his influence with him to promote his own interest and grandeur, it should be recorded, to the praise of this recluse student, that he solely used it in directing his attention towards objects of utility and benevolence.'

So great was the desire of this mighty potentate to promote learning, that he even made it the path to political elevation:

'Conspicuous examples of this (says Mr. Card) we meet with in the history of his reign. It will be sufficient to mention only the names of Eginhard and Amalarius, the former of whom filled for so many years the place of his secretary or chancellor, (for these titles were indiscriminately applied to him by the writers of the times,) and the latter was selected from a crowd of candidates as his ambassador to Michael, the emperor of the east. His passion for letters and encouragement of them were indeed so great and universally known, that two learned Scotchmen, in the certainty of obtaining his protection, cried out as he passed along the highway, *Science to be sold.* This singular conduct immediately arrested his attention; he ordered them

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to be presented to him, and having found that they really could perform what they had professed, afterwards promoted them to posts of trust and honor, suitable to their abilities.

'There is not certainly a more striking feature in the character of Charlemagne than his uniform encouragement of men of genius, both in the church and state. Not content with bestowing upon Theodolphus the bishopric of Orleans, he gave him likewise the abbey of Fleury, and several other abbeys. Hilduin, one of the members of the academy, possessed at the same time those of St. Dennis, of St. Germain de Pres, of St. Medard de Soissons, the revenues of which were very considerable; while Alcuin received four abbeys, and various other preferments, which exposed him to the envy and hatred of his less favoured competitors.

'From the numerous possessions and jurisdictions which Alcuin enjoyed, Elipand, a bishop of Spain, in a theological dispute with him, takes the opportunity to utter some severe reproaches upon his overgrown opulence; but authentic evidence is not wanting to rescue the memory of Alcuin from the charge of his mind being corrupted by prosperity. He frequently expressed an earnest wish to resign those gifts, which he had solely accepted upon the pressing solicitation of his sovereign, because the several duties annexed to them occasioned too long an interruption to those literary pursuits which constituted the chief happiness of his life. But no solicitations on his part, however frequent and sincere, could induce Charlemagne to transfer even some of his abbeys to his disciples, and thus leave to him the means of freely prosecuting his favourite studies.'

Whether or not we may applaud the views, politically considered, which governed Charlemagne in the maxims illustrated in the subsequent anecdote, we must admit the humour and the effect of the stratagem:

'The following expedient, which he adopted to cure his nobles of their extravagance in dress, ought not to be passed over in silence, as it strikingly pourtrays the manners of the times. The Emperor himself commonly wore the simplest attire, except upon occasions of great pomp and splendour. In his doublet of otter's skin, put over his woollen tunic, and his sash of a blue colour, he was scarcely to be distinguished from the meanest of his subjects. One morning, having perceived his courtiers decked out in their most costly habiliments, he proposed that they should immediately take the exercise of hunting. His invitation, or rather command, admitted of no refusal, for small is the distinction between these words, when they fall from the lips of a monarch. He appeared in a cloak of sheep's skin, tied negligently across his shoulders, and which afforded him a good covering during a heavy fall of snow, that, most opportunely to his wishes, happened while they were attending him in this recreation. But their silks were torn by the brambles and spoiled by the snow. When the chace was finished, benumbed with cold, and anxious to repair the damage done to their dresses, they begged leave to withdraw. The malicious monarch foresaw and prevented their intentions, by pressing them to follow his example, and dry their clothes before

before a great fire, which he had ready for that purpose. Although highly delighted with their embarrassment, he affected not to perceive the effects of the fire in drying their dresses, and shrivelling them into the most uncouth shapes. In dismissing them from his presence, he said, "To-morrow we will take our revenge, and in the same habits."

'When they appeared the following day in their torn and disfigured garments, they furnished a most ridiculous spectacle to the whole court. The Emperor, after having rallied them on their absurdity, at last exclaimed, "Fools that ye are, now perceive the difference betwixt your luxury and my simplicity! My dress covers and defends me, and when worn out is of no consequence; whilst your rich attires, liable to be spoiled by the least accident, almost amount, in value, to a large treasure."

The ingenious writer before us animadverts on the praise bestowed by Montesquieu on Charlemagne's economy: but, if the observations of the divine are plausible, and conformable to modern notions, those of the President à Mortier are founded on more just views of the times, and on a more just appreciation of effects and consequences. In estimating conduct, we must ever connect it with situation and circumstances. On the whole, however, we must allow that this performance shews its author to be a man of enlarged views and liberal sentiments. If we do not discover in it traces of deeper research than has already been frequently made, and if we do not meet with disclosures of matters that before had lain concealed, (which Mr. Card induces his readers to expect,) yet we are beholden to him for a fair, authentic, and well digested account of a highly interesting period.

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Art. XI. *An Account of the Empire of Marocco, and the District of Suse*; compiled from Miscellaneous Observations made during a long Residence in and various Journies through these Countries. To which is added an accurate and interesting Account of Timbuctoo, the great Emporium of central Africa. By James Grey Jackson, Esq. Illustrated with 13 Engravings and Maps. 4to. pp. 285. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nicol and Son. 1809.

Mr. Jackson informs us in his preface that the materials of his book were composed during a residence of sixteen years in different parts of the Empire of Marocco, and were at first intended as memoranda for his own use only, but that he was induced by Lord Moira to give them to the public: to which measure he was also incited by reflecting on the very slender knowlege which we hitherto possess of the interior of Barbary; our descriptions of that country consisting generally of the narratives of journies to the Emperor's Court, undertaken

taken for a local and temporary object, and consequently unproductive of satisfactory information respecting the country at large. In order to obtain a thorough acquaintance with the moral and political character of a nation so different from our own, a traveller must, as Mr. Jackson justly remarks, have long resided on the spot, have had access to the inhabitants in public as well as private life, and, above all, have acquired an accurate and practical intimacy with the Arabic language, the peculiarities of which are such as to lead the imperfect scholar into perpetual misapprehensions. Of authors previous to the present age, Mr. Jackson considers Leo Africanus to have given by far the best account of Marocco. In late years, great attention has been bestowed on Africa, but the judgment exercised in the pursuit of discovery has not been equal to the ardour of the intention. The progress of our enterprizing countryman, Parke, was much impeded by his imperfect knowlege of the temper and prejudices of the natives, as well as by his injudicious plan of travelling in an European dress; and Hornemann, although more prudent in the latter respect, was by no means accurate in his conceptions of the African character.

The volume before us consists of the following divisions: Chapter I. describes the geographical limits of the Empire of Marocco and its several provinces. II. Rivers. III. Climate and Face of the Country. IV. Soil and Culture. V. Zoology. VI. Minerals and Vegetables. VII. Population. VIII. National Manners. IX. Observations on the Mohammedan Religion. X. Language of Africa. XI. Commerce of Marocco and Suse. XII. Ship-wrecks and Treatment of Captives XIII. Traffic with the interior of Africa by the City of Timbuctoo. The book is concluded by an Appendix, containing an account of the species of plague which raged in the Empire of Marocco in 1799 and 1800.—In our observations, we shall pursue, as nearly as possible, the arrangement adopted by the author; classing our remarks, as well as our extracts, under the general heads to which they appear to us to belong.

Geographical Descriptions.—West Barbary, or the Empire of Marocco, extends southwards from Ceuta along the coast of the Atlantic to the 28th degree of N. lat., a length of more than six hundred English miles in a straight line. Its breadth is various, being from two to four hundred English miles, according to the particular quarter at which the computation may be made. In this definition of extent is included the province of Suse, which forms nominally the southern part of the Empire, but, from circumstances of local situation, is in a great measure independent of the Imperial Government. The Atlas Mountains

extend

extend in a N. E. direction almost the whole length of the Empire. They are at a considerable distance from the sea, but are notwithstanding visible from it in many places, on account of their great height. From Mogodor, the central part of this immense ridge may be seen, covered with snow, at a distance of 150 miles. These mountains consist of two extensive chains, called from their position the North and South Atlas, and from them proceed the various rivers which traverse West Barbary and fall into the Atlantic. The different stages of their elevation present a considerable variety of climate; and their influence on the adjacent plains seems to be equally salubrious with that of the Andes in America, the air of Marocco being healthy and invigorating. The soil also is in general very rich, producing wheat and barley in great abundance, as well as the fruits which belong to southern climates.

The varieties of the *Animal Kingdom* are considerable in Marocco. Among these, the Hyæna is particularly described by Mr. Jackson; and though its countenance is ferocious, its disposition is said to be rather stupid than fierce. Wherever rocks or caverns are seen in Barbary, this animal is to be found. We extract some of the particulars which are descriptive of it:

'The mode of hunting this animal is singular; a party of ten or twelve persons, accompanied with as many dogs of various kinds, go to the cavern which they have previously ascertained to be the haunt of the hyæna; one of the party then strips himself naked, and taking the end of a rope with a noose to it in one hand, he advances gradually into the cave, speaking gently, and in an insinuating tone of voice, pretending to fascinate the hyæna by words; when he reaches the animal, he strokes him down the back, which appears to soothe him; he then dexterously slips the noose round his neck, and instantly pulling the rope to indicate to those on the outside of the cave, who hold the other end, that it is fixed, he retires behind, throwing a handkerchief or cloth over the eyes of the hyæna; the men then pull the rope from without, whilst he who fixes the noose urges the animal forward, when the dogs attack him. Some of the Shelluhs (natives of the South Atlas) are very expert at securing the hyæna in this manner, and although there may be some danger in case the rope breaks, yet the man who enters the cave always carries a dagger, or large knife with him, with which he has considerably the advantage, for this animal is by no means so ferocious as he appears to be: in the southern Atlas I have seen them led about by the boys; a rope being fastened round the animal's neck, and a communicating rope attached to it on either side, three or four yards long, the end of each being held by a boy, keep him perfectly secure. It is confinement that is inimical to a hyæna, and which increases his ferocity. There are other modes of hunting this stupid animal,

animal, either in the night with dogs, or by shooting him; but he never comes out of his cave in the day-time, but sits at the further end of it, staring with his eyes fixed. Their general character is not to be afraid of man, nor indeed to attack or avoid him; they will, however, attack and destroy sheep, goats, poultry, asses, and mules, and are very fond of the intoxicating herb, called Hashisha. The hyæna is said to live to a great age.'

From the hyæna, Mr. Jackson passes to an animal of a more gracious character, the Gazel or Antelope. Arabian poets are fond of complimenting the ladies by comparing their eyes to those of the gazel, and Mr. Jackson's imagination seems to kindle when descanting on this animating topic. 'Much art,' he informs us, 'is employed by the Arabian females to make their eyes appear like those of this delicate animal. Eyes originally black and lively are made to appear larger and more languishing by tinging the outer corner with *El Kahol filelly*, a preparation of lead ore which gives an apparent elongation to the eye. The eye-lashes and eye-brows being also blackened with this composition, they appear *peculiarly soft and languishing*; it is said also to *improve and strengthen the sight.*' After this captivating enumeration, Mr. Jackson proceeds to favour his readers with an Arabian sonnet, illustrative of his remarks. It is the address of a lover to his mistress, and is presented by the author in three shapes; in the Arabic character; then in Arabic words in the Roman character; and lastly in an English translation executed by himself. Our fair readers, we believe, will be contented with the latter:

'Say, thou Antelope in beauty,
Since permitted to return,
Say, what is a lover's duty
Who with *ardent fire doth burn.*
Sympathise with him who loves you,
Crown of all my hopes and joys,
'Tis your constant swain approves you,
His Gazel all his soul employs.'

We would observe, *en passant*, that the tautological expression of 'burning with ardent fire,' shews that the author possesses no 'critical mastery of language;' a remark which is farther confirmed by an unfortunate use of the active for the passive mood, in the same page, in the phrase 'the antelope soon fatigues:' but we pass with pleasure from animadversions on style, to a consideration of the useful matter with which Mr. Jackson frequently presents his readers.

Africa has been, from time immemorial, the nursery of Locusts; and we have here an account of that destructive insect which fully coincides with the affecting picture given in the Old Testament:

'Locusts

'Locusts are produced from some unknown physical cause, and proceed from the Desert, always coming from the south. When they visit a country, it behoves every individual to lay in a provision against a famine; for they are said to stay three, five, or seven years. During my residence in West and South Barbary, those countries suffered a visitation from them during seven years. They have a government among themselves, similar to that of the bees and ants; and when the (Sultan Jerraad) king of the locusts rises, the whole body follow him, not one solitary straggler being left behind to witness the devastation. When they have eaten all other vegetation, they attack the trees, consuming first the leaves, and then the bark, so that the country, in the midst of summer, from their unsparing rapacity, bears the face of winter. In my travels, I have seen them so thick on the ground, as sometimes actually to have covered my horse's hoofs, as he went along; it is very annoying to travel through a host of them, as they are continually flying in your face, and settling on your hands and clothes. At a distance, they appear, in the air, like an immense cloud, darkening the sun; and whilst employed in devouring the produce of the land, it has been observed that they uniformly proceed one way, as regularly as a disciplined army on its march; nor will it be possible to discover a single one going a different way from the rest. In travelling from Mogodor to Tangier, before the plague in 1799, the country was covered with them: a singular incident then occurred at El Araiche; the whole country from the confines of Sahara to that place was ravaged by them, but after crossing the river El Kos, they were not to be seen, though there was nothing to prevent them from flying across it; moreover, they were all moving that way, that is to the north; but when they reached the banks of the river, they proceeded eastward, so that the gardens and fields north of El Araiche were full of vegetables, fruits, and grain. The Arabs of the province of El Garb considered this remarkable circumstance, as an evident interposition of Providence.

'This curse of heaven can only be conceived by those who have seen the dismal effects of their devastation: the poor people, by living on them, become meagre and indolent, for no labour will yield fruit, whilst the locusts continue increasing in numbers. In the rainy season they partially disappear, and at the opening of the spring the ground is covered with their young; those crops of corn which are first mature, and the grain which becomes hardened before the locust attains its full growth, are likely to escape, provided there be other crops less forward for them to feed upon.

'In the year 1799, these destructive insects were carried away into the Western Ocean by a violent hurricane; and the shores were afterwards covered with their dead bodies, which in many places emitted a pestilential smell; that is, wherever the land was low, or where the salt water had not washed them; to this event succeeded a most abundant crop of corn, the lands which had lain fallow for years, being now cultivated; but the produce of the cultivation was accompanied with a most infectious and deadly plague, a calamity of which the locusts have often been observed to be the fore-runners.'

Of

Of the tribe of reptiles, in Marocco, the most remarkable is the famous *Boa Constrictor*:

'The *Boah*, or desert Snake, is an enormous monster, from twenty to eighty feet long, as thick as a man's body, and of a dingy colour: this inhabitant of Sahara is not venomous, though it is not less destructive: the Arabs (speaking of it figuratively,) affirm, that as it passes along the desert it fires the ground with the velocity of its motion. It is impossible to escape it; it will twist itself round an ox, and after crushing its bones, will swallow it gradually, after which it lies supinely on the ground two or three days, unable to proceed till the animal be digested. Two of these monsters stationed themselves near the road from Marocco to Terodant, near to the latter city, a few years since; one of them was killed, the other remained there several days, and prevented travellers from passing the road: they were both young ones, being about twenty feet long. Various stories are related by the Arabs of Sahara respecting the Boahs; but they are mostly ingenious fables, originally intended to inculcate some moral truth, or trait of human nature, which, by the embellishments of tradition, added to the credulity of the Arabs, are now related as facts. Without speaking of all the various kinds of serpents which are either timid, harmless, or not venomous, I must observe, that

'The *Domestic Serpents* claim some attention. In the city of Marocco these animals abound; there is scarcely a house without its domestic serpent, which is sometimes seen moving along the roofs of the apartments; they are never molested by the family, who would not hurt them on any consideration, conceiving them a benediction on the household; they have been known to suck the breasts of women whilst asleep, and retire without offering any further injury. They are so susceptible as to be sensible of enmity towards them, and it is thought imprudent to incur their displeasure; for this reason the inhabitants of Marocco treat them kindly, and as members of the family, not wishing to disturb an animal that claims the rights of hospitality by settling in their house.'

The *Population* of the Empire of Marocco considerably exceeds the amount which has hitherto been supposed, being fifteen millions. The principal cities are, Fas, (commonly called Fez,) containing 380,000 inhabitants; Marocco, the Imperial residence, 270,000; and Mequinas, 110,000. Next to these in population is Terodant, an inland town with 25,000 inhabitants; and, on the coast, Rabat, 25,000; Sallee, 18,000; Tetuan, 16,000; Saffy, 12,000; and Mogodor, 10,000.

The City of Marocco is situated in a fertile plain, interspersed with groves of lofty palm trees, and bounded on the East by the snowy mountains of Atlas, distant from the city about thirty miles. It was built in 1052, and bears marks of having been more extensive and flourishing in former ages than it is at present. The ruins of decayed houses encumber the

streets, and form an impediment to cleanliness. It is surrounded by very thick walls, made of a cement of lime and sandy earth, put in cases, and beaten together with square rammers. The atmosphere here is very healthy, the Atlas mountains defending the city from the Shume or hot wind of the desert. Marocco is properly the capital of the southern division of the Empire; and the capital of the northern division is Mequinas, which city stands in a beautiful valley about sixty miles inland from Sallee: but its interior is not equal to the environs, the streets not being paved, and mud consequently accumulating in the rainy season. The inhabitants are extremely hospitable; their manners are mild; and the beauty of the women is renowned throughout the Empire.

Fas, or Fez, is both more populous and more antient than either of the cities which we have mentioned, having been founded in the year 786. In opulence, however, it is not equal to them. The houses have flat roofs, covered with terras, on which the inhabitants spread carpets in summer to enjoy the cool breezes of the evening; they are large buildings; and in the centre of each is an open quadrangle surrounded by a gallery, which communicates with the stair-case, and into which the doors of the different apartments open. The principal houses have cisterns under them, to hold the water used in the baths. In the city are nearly two hundred caravanseras, or inns, each three stories high, and containing between fifty and a hundred apartments: but in these apartments consists the whole accommodation afforded by the inn-keeper, the traveller carrying his own bedding along with him, and buying his provisions out of doors. Each trade or profession has a separate department of the city assigned to it. In one quarter are seen the offices of notaries; in another, stationers; in a third, shoemakers; here is a fruit market, and there are wax chandlers. —Terodant is an antient town, situated to the southward, in the province or kingdom of Suse, of which it was formerly the capital. It has considerably decreased in population, and is now famous only for the manufacture of saltpetre, and of leather.

All these towns are in the interior of the country. The principal places on the coast, commencing from the North, are Tetuan, Ceuta, Tangier, Sallee, Rabat, Azamor, El Woladia, Saffy, Mogodor, and Agadeer, or Santa Cruz. Tetuan is convenient as a naval station, where a fleet may lie in safety while watering and victualling; Ceuta belongs to Spain; Tangier affords a supply of provisions to Gibraltar, and a station to Moorish pirates; Sallee is a walled town, but with a decaying harbour; Rabat, in its neighbourhood, a

populous place with some trade; Azamor, a healthy town, but ill adapted to trade; El Woladia, a spacious harbour, the entrance to which ought to be improved; Saffy, an unhealthy place in a confined situation. The next harbour is that of Mogodor, a town subsisting entirely by commerce, and built with more regularity than any other place in the Empire. It is fortified, and capable of making considerable resistance either on the land or the sea-side. The houses being all of stone, and white, the town has a beautiful appearance from a distance. It is the principal commercial port of the Moors on the Atlantic, and the only one which maintains a regular intercourse with Europe. To the southward of Mogodor is Agadeer, or Santa Cruz, the last port in the Emperor's dominions, with a safe and capacious roadstead. It might be a place of great trade with the interior of Africa, were it not a part of the tyrannical policy of the government of Marocco to discourage this town, on account of its distance from their influence. Beyond Santa Cruz, says Mr. Jackson, we find no port that is frequented by shipping, but a tract of coast which holds out great encouragement to commercial enterprize, and on which secure establishments might be effected.

National Manners.—The inhabitants of the Empire of Marocco may be divided into four classes, Moors, Arabs, Berebbers, and Shelluhs. They are thus described by Mr. Jackson:

'The *Moors* are the descendants of those who were driven out of Spain; they inhabit the cities of Marocco, Fas, Mequinas, and all the coast towns, as far southward as the province of Haha. Their language is a corrupt Arabic intermixed with Spanish.

'The *Arabs* have their original stock in Sahara, from whence they emigrate to the plains of Marocco, whenever the plague, famine, or any other calamity depopulates the country so as to admit of a new colony, without injuring the territory of the former inhabitants. These Arabs live in tents, and speak the language of the Koran, somewhat corrupted. They are a restless and turbulent people, continually at war with each other: in one province a rebellious kabyle, or clan, will fight against a neighbouring loyal one, and will thus plunder and destroy one another, till, fatigued by the toils of war, they mutually cease, when, the next year perhaps, the rebellious clan will be found fighting for the Emperor against the former loyal one, now become rebellious. This plan of setting one tribe against another is an act of policy of the Emperor, because if he did not, in this manner, quell the broils continually breaking out amongst them, he would be compelled, in order to preserve tranquillity in his dominions, to employ his own army for that purpose, which is generally occupied in more important business.

'The *Berebbers* inhabit the mountains of Atlas north of the city of Marocco, living generally in tents; they are a robust, nervous people, having a language peculiar to themselves, which differs more from

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the Arabic, or general language of Africa, than any two languages of Europe differ from each other; it is probably a dialect of the ancient Carthaginian. In travelling through the Berebber Kabyles of Ait Imure, and Zemure Shelluh, I noticed many who possessed the old Roman physiognomy. The general occupation of these people is husbandry, and the rearing of bees for honey and wax.

'The *Shelluhs* inhabit the Atlas mountains, and their various branches south of Marocco; they live generally in towns, and are, for the most part, occupied in husbandry like the Berebbers, though differing from them in their language, dress, and manners; they live almost entirely on (Assoua) barley-meal made into gruel, and barley roasted or granulated, which they mix with cold water, when travelling; this is called *Zimeta*. They occasionally indulge in *cuscasoe*, a nutritive farinaceous food, made of granulated flour, and afterwards boiled by steam, and mixed with butter, mutton, fowls, and vegetables. Many families among these people are reported to be descended from the Portuguese, who formerly possessed all the ports on the coast; but who, after the discovery of America, gradually withdrew thither.'—

'The Moorish dress resembles that of the ancient patriarchs, as represented in paintings; that of the men consists of a red cap and turban, a (Kumja) shirt, which hangs outside of the drawers, and comes down below the knee, a (Caftan) coat, which buttons close before, and down to the bottom, with large open sleeves; over which, when they go out of doors, they throw carelessly, and sometimes elegantly, a hayk or garment of white cotton, silk, or wool, five or six yards long, and five feet wide: the Arabs often dispense with the caftan, and even with the shirt, wearing nothing but the hayk.'—

'The people of this empire being born subjects of an arbitrary despot, they may be said to have no established laws; they know no other than the will of the prince, and if this should deviate, as it sometimes does, from the moral principles laid down in the Koran, it must be obeyed. Where the Emperor resides, he administers justice, in person, generally twice, and sometimes four times a week, in the (M'shoire) place of audience, whither all complaints are carried: here access is easy; he listens to every one, foreigners or subjects, men or women, rich or poor; there is no distinction, every one has a right to appear before him, and boldly to explain the nature of his case; and although his person is considered as sacred, and established custom obliges the subject to prostrate himself and to pay him rather adoration than respect, yet every complainant may tell his story without the least hesitation or timidity; indeed, if any one is abashed, or appears diffident, his cause is weakened in proportion. Judgment is always prompt, decisive, plausible, and generally correct.'

Whatever may be the kind of justice thus administered to those who have little to lose, it is clear that a tribunal, in which the will of the judge forms the law, must be replete with danger to those whose property is an object of temptation. Accordingly, the Emperor exercises an absolute despotism over his

Bashaws and Alkaids, who in their turn domineer with equal rapacity over his subjects at large; and when they learn, by means of their spies, that an individual has acquired considerable property, they contrive a cause of accusation for the purpose of extorting money from him. Such a mode of government is fatal to all virtue among the people. It renders them suspicious, deceitful, and cruel; strangers to every social tie, and even to the affections of kindred; the father distrusting the son, and the son fearing the father. The vices of sensuality are carried to a great excess among them; and so far are they from having any consciousness of their degradation and ignorance, compared with other nations, that they consider themselves as the first people in the world, and contemptuously term all others barbarians. Happily, however, exceptions to this general character may be found, many individuals giving evidence of feelings above the ordinary level of their countrymen; and fortitude under adversity is a characteristic possessed by this nation in a high degree. The Moor may be said never to despair; no bodily suffering, no calamity, makes him complain; he is resigned in all things to the will of God, and waits in patient hope for an amelioration of his condition.

Hereditary distinctions are unknown among the Moors; by birth they are all equal; and they admit no difference of rank except such as is derived from official employments, on the resignation of which the occupant mixes again with the common class of citizens.—Mr. Jackson thus represents their domestic manners:

'The Moors are, for the most part, more cleanly in their persons, than in their garments. They wash their hands before every meal, which, as they use no knives or forks, they eat with their fingers: half a dozen persons sit round a large bowl of *cuscasoe*, and, after the usual ejaculation (Bismillah) "In the name of God!" each person puts his hand to the bowl, and taking up the food, puts it by a dexterous jerk, into his mouth, without suffering his fingers to touch the lips. However repugnant this may be to our ideas of cleanliness, yet the hand being always washed, and never touching the mouth in the act of eating, these people are by no means so dirty as Europeans have sometimes hastily imagined. They have no chairs or tables in their houses, but sit cross-legged on carpets and cushions; and at meals, the dish or bowl of provisions is placed on the floor.

'The women are not less cleanly than the men; for besides performing the usual ablutions before and after meals, they wash their face, hands, arms, legs, and feet, two or three times a day, which contributes greatly to heighten their beauty. The poorer classes, however, look deplorable, and excite disgust. The faces of the old women appear shrivelled, from the immoderate use of cosmetics and paint during their youth.'—

'When

'When a Mooselmin is inclined to marry, he makes enquiry of some confidential servant respecting the person of her mistress, and if he receives a satisfactory description of the lady, an opportunity is sometimes procured to see her at a window, or other place; this interview generally determines whether the parties are to continue their regards; if the suitor be satisfied with the lady, he seeks an occasion of communicating his passion to the father, and proposes to marry his daughter. The father's consent being obtained, he sends presents to the lady, according to his circumstances, which being accepted, the parties are supposed to be betrothed, and marriage follows.'—

'It is not expected that the woman should have a fortune, or a settlement; but if the father be rich, he generally gives a dowry to his daughter, and a quantity of pearls, rubies, diamonds, &c. The dowry remains the property of the female, and in case of a separation, by consent of the husband, is returned to her: these separations proceed from various causes, as barrenness, the disappointment of expectation, or incompatability of disposition. Separation, however, not originating in the above causes, is reprobated as immoral and disreputable.'

Language.—The Arabic is, in the opinion of the Mohammedans, the most eloquent of languages, and is spoken perhaps by a greater proportion of the inhabitants of the world than any other. In traversing the African continent, whether from North to South or from East to West, persons are every where to be found, at least in the great cities, who are acquainted with Arabic. In Turkey, Syria, Persia, and India, it is understood by many of the well-educated classes; and a knowlege of the Koran-Arabic leads speedily to an acquaintance with its other dialects, as well as with the Hindoostanee. Europeans experience considerable difficulty in acquiring Arabic, from the difference between its sounds and those of their own tongue, but especially from their not learning, while studying it, the peculiar distinctions of the synonimous letters. Sir William Jones, accurately as he knew the language from books, was not able to converse intelligibly with a native Arab; a circumstance of which he was not conscious till he went to India. An European gentleman who had been many years in Marocco, and accounted himself an Arabic scholar, pronounced the synonimous letters so inaccurately, that an Arab, after having listened one day to a long address from him, exclaimed, "I entreat thee to speak Arabic that I may understand thee." Elfi Bey is said to have declared that he had found only one European whose Arabic he could easily comprehend.—Mr. Jackson thinks that, if the present ardour for African discovery should continue, the learned world may expect to recover a part of the lost works of Greece and Rome, in Arabic translations made when Arabian literature was in its

zenith, and confined since that time to libraries in the interior of Africa, as well as in Arabia.

Our intercourse with Marocco has been greatly impeded by the imperfect degree in which our Envoys possessed the language. What expectations can be entertained of success, in a negotiation conducted through the medium of an illiterate interpreter, who is generally a Jew, and a devoted subject of the Emperor? Such men are most unfit depositaries of national secrets, and dare not on pain of death take the freedom of using to the Emperor many expressions which are essential to the conclusion of a treaty. In consequence of this ignorance of the respective languages of the negociating parties, treaties have been made between Great Britain and Marocco without being understood on either part; and, on our side, without being translated till several months after their conclusion. Mr. Jackson relates (page 218), that the Emperor of Marocco, being desirous to open a direct communication with the British Court, addressed a letter in Arabic to our Sovereign, which remained unanswered during a great length of time, on account of the language not being intelligible. It had been sent to one or both of our Universities, but in vain; the difference of punctuation preventing it from being translated, till it happened to fall into Mr. Jackson's hands.

Shipwrecks, and fate of the captives.—Our feelings are so much interested by the information afforded by Mr. Jackson on this topic, that we are desirous to make it as generally known as our pages can render it. That part of the west coast of Africa, which lies between the 32d and the 20th degree of latitude, is a desert country, interspersed with immense hills of loose sand, which is often blown about in such a manner as to create the appearance of a hazy atmosphere, without giving any notice of the vicinity of land; the water also is so shallow, that ships often strike when at a great distance from the beach; and a current sets in from the west towards the coast with great rapidity, with which the navigator is generally unacquainted: he therefore loses his reckoning, and finds his ship aground. The consequence is a surrender to the Arabs, who, attracted by the wreck, come down on the coast; and the captives are forthwith stripped and marched, barefooted, up the country. Their feet, unaccustomed to the burning sand, soon begin to swell: but the Arab, himself abstemious and unexhausted, has no sympathy with his prisoner. These people are in the habit of going fifty miles in a day without tasting food, and are contented at night with a little barley-meal mixed with cold water. The seamen

are marched about in this miserable manner from one market to another, till those who survive fall into the hands of itinerant Jews; who probably write to Mogodor with a notice of the wreck, and of the opportunity of redeeming the prisoners. The Consul at Mogodor, unable himself to supply funds for their redemption, can do nothing but adopt the circuitous mode of writing to the Consul-general at Tangier. This proceeding occupies nearly a month; and, during this interval, the captives are employed in laborious and unhealthy services, and the younger part of them are in danger of being seduced to become Mohammedans. Mr. Jackson computes that the vessels wrecked on this coast, the loss of which has been learnt by accident, may amount, between the years 1790 and 1806, to the number of thirty, divided as follows: English 17, French 5, American 5, Dutch, Danish, &c. 3. Of the English vessels, the crews were in number probably two hundred, for whom he thus accounts:

Drowned, killed, or induced to embrace the Mohammedan religion, - - - -	80
Dispersed in the Desert from delay in redeeming them,	40
Redeemed, after being in captivity from one to five years,	80

Now, all the misery arising from this dispersion, as well as from the lengthened detention of those who are ultimately released, might be prevented by the simple expedient of placing an adequate sum of money in the hands of the vice-consul, or of a merchant of respectability at Mogodor;—a measure which we cannot press too strongly on the attention of our countrymen.

Commerce.—The great emporium of central Africa, the point of assemblage for the caravans which traverse its deserts, is Timbuctoo, a city situated about thirteen hundred miles S. S. E. of the town of Marocco. It stands in a plain surrounded by sandy eminences, about twelve miles north of the Niger; and its circumference is said to amount to twelve miles: but the houses being spacious, and having, for the most part, no upper apartments, the population is not proportionally great. As it is the resort of nations of various religions, the government has wisely adopted the plan of avoiding interference with their tenets. The police also is said to be very good, and the climate is considered as healthy. The accommodation for travellers is similar to that which has been described in the Empire of Marocco. Camels, horses, drivers, and merchants, rendezvous at a caravansera, or large inn, called a Fondaque, having an open space in the middle, round which are built rooms sufficiently large for a bed and a table. Each

merchant hires a room, and proceeds to exchange his commodities till he has invested the whole in the produce of the country; which he endeavours to accomplish before the month of September, in order to be ready for the caravans which take their departure in various directions at that time. The Niger near Timbuctoo is said to be about as wide as the Thames at London, but so rapid in the middle that the boats navigating it must proceed along the banks to avoid the current.

A large caravan is called an akkabaah, and consists of several hundred loaded camels, accompanied by their Arab proprietors, who hire them to the merchants at a very moderate rate. They cannot pursue their track across the desert in a direct line, but find it necessary to turn occasionally to the right or the left, according to the situation of certain cultivated spots, interspersed in the desert, like islands in the ocean, and called *Oases*, from the Arabic *Elwaah*, which serve as watering-places both for men and camels; the hot winds called Shume being often so violent, as to exhale the water that is carried in skins for the use of the travellers. These winds driving the loose sand along the plains, the drifting surface resembles the waves of the ocean, and the desert is hence aptly termed by the Arabs, "a sea without water." In 1805, a caravan proceeding from Timbuctoo northward was disappointed of water at one of the usual watering-places, when two thousand men and 1800 camels perished with thirst. The Arabs often prefer travelling in the night, in order to avoid the heat, and are guided in their course by the stars. They generally go between three and four English miles in an hour, and proceed during seven hours in a day: but they find it necessary to pass so much time at the Oases, that a journey from Marocco to Timbuctoo is the work of four months. In passing through the respective territories of the different Arab clans or tribes, they are protected, in the name of the tribe, by two or more of the individuals belonging to it. The tribes receive a remuneration for this safe-guard, and are so faithful to their engagement that they would not fail to take ample revenge for any assault which was made against the caravan, while it was under their protection. The habits of the travellers are thus described:

'Those who have philosophy enough to confine their wants solely to what nature requires, would view the individual happiness of the people who compose the caravans, with approbation. Their food, dress, and accommodation, are simple and natural; proscribed from the use of wine, and intoxicating liquors, by their religion, and exhorted by its principles to temperance, they are commonly satisfied

with a few nourishing dates, and a draft of water; and they will travel for weeks successively without any other food; at other times, a little barley-meal and cold water is the extent of their provision, when they undertake a journey of a few weeks across the Desert; living in this abstemious manner, they never complain, but solace themselves with a hope of reaching their native country, singing occasionally during the journey, whenever they approach any habitation, or whenever the camels appear fatigued; these songs are usually sung in trio, and in the chorus all the camel drivers, who have a musical voice, join; it is worthy observation, how much these songs renovate the camels, and the symphony and time they keep surpasses what any one would imagine, who had not heard them. In traversing the Desert, they generally contrive to terminate the day's journey at l'Asaw, a term which they appropriate to our four o'clock, P. M. so that between that period and the setting sun, the tents are pitched, prayers said, and the (Lashaw) supper got ready; after which they sit round in a circle, and talk till sleep overcomes them, and next morning, at break of day, they proceed again on their journey.'

One of the principal branches of traffic from the interior of Africa to Marocco is the import of slaves. According to Mr. Jackson's account of their treatment, it is much more humane than the impressions generally entertained of the Moorish character would lead us to expect:

'These slaves are treated very differently from the unhappy victims who used to be transported from the coast of Guinea, and our settlements on the Gambia, to the West India islands. After suffering those privations, which all who traverse the African Desert must necessarily and equally submit to, masters, as well as servants and slaves, they are conveyed to Fas and Marocco, and after being exhibited in the sock, or public market-place, they are sold to the highest bidder, who carries them to his home, where, if found faithful, they are considered as members of the family, and allowed an intercourse with the (horraht) free-born women of the household. Being in the daily habit of hearing the Arabic language spoken, they soon acquire a partial knowledge of it, and the Mohammedan religion teaching the unity of God, they readily reject paganism, and embrace Mohammedanism; their Mooselmin masters then instil into their vacant minds, ready to receive the first impression, the fundamental principles of the Mooselmin doctrine; the more intelligent learn to read and write, and afterwards acquire a partial knowledge of the Koran; and such as can read and understand one chapter, from that time procure their emancipation from slavery, and the master exults in having converted an infidel, and in full faith, expects favour from heaven for the action, and for having liberated a slave. When these people do not turn their minds to reading, and learning the principles of Mohammedanism, they generally obtain their freedom after eight or ten years servitude; for the more conscientious Mooselmin consider them as servants, and purchase them for about the same sum that they would pay in wages to a servant during the above period; at the expiration of which term, by giving them their liberty, they,

they, according to their religious opinions, acquire a blessing from God, for having done an act, which a Mooselmin considers more meritorious in the sight of Heaven, than the sacrifice of a goat, or even of a camel. This liberation is entirely voluntary on the part of the owner; and I have known some slaves so attached to their masters from good treatment, that when they have been offered their liberty, they have actually refused it, preferring to continue in servitude. It should not, however, be supposed, that the Arabs and Moors are always inclined thus to liberate these degraded people; on the contrary, some of them, particularly the latter, are obdurate, and make an infamous traffic of them, by purchasing, and afterwards intermarrying them, for the purposes of propagation and of sale, when they are placed in the public market-place, and there turned about, and examined in order to ascertain their value.'

Having now furnished our readers with ample specimens of Mr. Jackson's views on particular topics, it remains that we make a few remarks on the general merits of his book. We have already alluded to the imperfections of his style, and we might adduce a great variety of examples in support of the stricture. In one place, (page 12.) we have 'campaign' for *champaign*; in another, (162.) 'obligated' for *obliged*; and in a third, (240.) we find him unacquainted with the distinction between astrology and astronomy. The severity of criticism ought, however, in some measure to be disarmed by an apology in the preface, which expresses that a plain relation of facts was all that the author had in view, and by the consideration that his profession is not literary but mercantile. Our opinion is that the reader who expects in this book considerable novelty of local information will be gratified; but that he who carries expectation farther, and looks for skilful arrangement and enlightened conclusions, will be disappointed. Another circumstance also deserves to be noticed. The author, while he gives the strongest proofs of his own veracity, is not sufficiently distrustful of that of others. Much of his information is founded on the hear-say evidence of a rude people; yet the substance of their reports is communicated by him to the public, unaccompanied by those cautions which ought invariably to be applied to such doubtful testimony. Mr. Jackson promises eventually a farther volume on 'the political history of Marocco;' and we shall learn with pleasure that the intention is carried into effect, provided that he adopts the plan of laying facts and circumstances before us, and avoids the field of speculation. His authorities, also, should be distinctly given; all of which, in our judgment, may be accomplished without expanding the book to the size of a costly quarto.

We must add that Mr. Jackson has devoted one of his chapters, the ninth, to remarks on the Mohammedan religion; the

the character of which discussion is similar to that of the rest of the book. It corrects several popular errors in regard to the Mohammedan creed, and discovers considerable knowlege of its particular tenets, but evinces little felicity of illustration on grounds of general reasoning.—The maps and views are very neatly executed; and the former, which represent the Empire of Marocco and the route to Timbuctoo, though on a small scale, are perhaps the most accurate delineations of these unknown regions that we possess. Lo.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For OCTOBER, 1809.

LAW.

Art. 12. *A Practical Treatise on Powers.* By Edward Burtenshaw Sugden, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 664. 19s. Boards. Reed. 1808.

Art. 13. *Scintilla Juris*, or an Argument which hath been generally discussed under that Title, &c. against Mr. Sugden's Observations on that Subject. By W. H. Rowe, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. pp. 60. Stratford. 1809

The third section of the first chapter of Mr. Sugden's volume has called forth very warm and spirited animadversions from Mr. Rowe, whose former notions on the subject Mr. S. had very freely criticized. Mr. Sugden has not yet taken any notice of his shrewd and intelligent antagonist; and till he has done this, we should be premature in giving an opinion on the matter in dispute: more especially when it is considered that it is a point on which Mr. Fearne and Chief Justice Willes have taken different sides. We shall only observe that Mr. Rowe seems to us more fairly to construe the statute, and the cases which have been decided on it; while it appears to us equally clear that the *Scintilla* is a very forced device, not only unsupported by the statute, but directly contradictory of the intention and wholly out of the contemplation of the powers of it. That it was intended to accomplish all that Mr. Fearne and Mr. Sugden suppose it to effect, we entertain not the slightest doubt: but has the act been penned so as to do this? Has it been drawn up so as to perform what its framers proposed? How came this obvious consideration not to occupy the attention of either of the acute and ingenious combatants? All the puzzle, we suspect, will be found to have been occasioned by the want of a few additional words in the statute, or perhaps of a slight variation in the wording of it.—The industry with which Mr. Sugden has collected the cases which relate to his subject, his arrangement of them, and his discernment of their bearing and effect, intitle him to considerable praise. The clearness and distinctness which characterized his former volume will also be generally found to give value to the pages before us: but if his judgment appears to be more mature, he

he seems to have been more pressed for want of time. Though the book is susceptible of being made much more perfect, it will form a valuable addition to the student's library. Jo.

Art. 14. *A Treatise on the Defects of the Debtor and Creditor Laws*, and the Consequences of Imprisonment for Civil Debt; or an Address to the Public in Behalf of honest Debtors and injured Creditors; with an Exposition of Facts interesting to Gentlemen of the Law; and impartial Observations on the Comparative Distinction between honest and fraudulent Debtors. By W. Minchin, Esq. 8vo. pp. 222. 4s 6d. Tipper. 1809.

This important and able tract proceeds from the best motives, and indicates the most benevolent intentions. It is sober and dispassionate; and the advocate of the persecuted Debtor does not overlook the wrongs of the injured Creditor, but correctly draws the line between the deserving and the worthless in both the classes.—In a performance, however, which aims at the production of eminent practical good, we could have wished to have seen less of matter which might well have been spared; to have found fewer observations and more facts; and to have been convinced that the references to the remedies were more proportionate to the statement of the evils. In these respects, Mr. Minchin disappoints our expectations: but we must do him the justice to acknowlege that his tract is well calculated to incite others to supply what he has left imperfect. He is liberal in his praise of the dignified persons who preside in our supreme courts: but it is not praise alone that he bestows; for he records acts and measures which shew that his commendation is merited. The laws themselves, also, at the moment when he is pointing out their imperfections, receive from him a tribute of just approbation.

Mr. M. tells us that 'he has much satisfaction in observing, that any one who fairly and impartially traces the laws of England to their original principles, will be pleased in the contemplation of the virtue, wisdom, and order, with which they have manifestly been established. Legislators, philosophers, and moralists, of all ages, have contributed successfully to the improvement of those sacred master-principles which protect human society, and which are now recognised and revered by every good subject. They have been successively taught by scientific men, from the earliest dawn of theory and speculation to the present moment.'—'Our progress of jurisprudence, and the administration of our laws, display a most noble spectacle, when we contemplate the persevering efforts successively applied through a long course of ages. The principle of justice pervades the whole system, and extends to the minutest formality in legal proceedings; extricating every case as it arises from the dangerous application of discretionary power, and placing it under definite rules; contracting the means of arbitrary authority, and extending the dominion of wisdom and mercy.'

The aim of the present treatise is stated to be 'to expedite the attainment of justice due to creditors, and to plead in favour of the suffering debtor.'—Mr. M. admits that 'the process of our courts, from the first act of arrest or commitment, to the period of charging the defendant in execution, is distinguished by order, precision, and requisite formality. Substantial justice is pursued with legal solemnity,

and

and the claims of creditors are established or disproved by the highest anthority and most unequivocal evidence.'

We have next a perspicuous and full summary of the statutes and judicial regulations which respect debtor and creditor; followed by suggestions highly worthy of attention, for better securing the attainment of a creditor's rights; and a like account is given of the institutions which have been formed for the relief of confined debtors.

We learn that 'from the various returns which have heretofore been made to the respective Committees of the House of Commons, as well as from the several statements procured by the imprisoned debtors, in their respective communications and correspondence with each other, it will appear that the aggregate number confined at one period, has been *communibus annis*, 2000 debtors, including the prisons of England, Ireland, and Wales.—Of these, it may be estimated, that, on an average, not more than one-third have been confined for debts not exceeding 20l.; and of these few, only a small comparative number remained to be charged in execution; the other two-thirds, consisting of 1334 persons, owing more than 20l. each, are consequently exempted from any benefit under the late act for their liberation; and instead of nine in ten of the prisoners throughout England and Wales being entitled to their release, after twelve months confinement on a judgment obtained, an average estimate will shew, that not more than 666 can be liberated by the most ample operation of this well-intentioned, though, it is apprehended, inadequate mode of relief. Of the 1334 not coming within the pale of relief, it is estimated, that 800 have wives; and on an average, each of these has three children, making together 4534 suffering persons not entitled to the benefit of liberation under this act.'

The subject of the interesting chapter on the relative situation of debtor and creditor is thus stated:—'In contemplating this important part of the subject, the attention will be directed towards a discovery of those motives which generally induce hostile measures against the debtor; the usual consequences of ill-judged, ill-advised, or vindictive proceedings; the absurd, oppressive, useless, and unjustifiable imprisonment of the debtor; the evils accruing to himself, his relatives and dependants, and the ultimate loss to his country: which will be succeeded by remarks on the fallacy of persecution; with some suggestions for better securing the attainment of justice to creditors, and a summary of the provisional amendments recommended by other writers.'

It was with great satisfaction that we found it announced, by a very learned law lord, (for whose professional attainments, while we differ most widely from his notions of politics and administrative measures, we entertain the highest respect,) that he is devoting his leisure to the revisal and amendment of this and other parts of the law.

Jo.

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 15. *Suggestions for the Prevention of that insidious and destructive Foe to the British Troops in the West Indies, commonly termed the Yellow-Fever.* With the Outline of a Plan of Military Hospitals, on a Principle and Construction, tending to introduce a more successful

cessful Treatment of the Sick. To which are added other Papers connected with the Subject. By Stewart Henderson, M.D. District Staff Surgeon. 8vo. pp. 114. 5s. Stockdale, Jun.

After a few observations on the ravages committed by the yellow-fever among the European troops in the West Indies, Dr. Henderson gives his opinion respecting the nature of this disease. He informs us that it is not imported, but generated on the spot; that it arises from marsh effluvia; that it is not contagious; and that the yellow, bilious, remittent, and intermittent fever of the West Indies, is the same disease, existing in different degrees of violence, or somewhat modified by peculiarity of constitution. These opinions are delivered as matters of fact, and very little reasoning of any kind is employed to enforce them. The principal object of the treatise, as it is expressed in the title, is to *prevent* this 'destructive foe;' for it appears to be admitted that, when it has once taken possession of the constitution, its *expulsion* is a matter of the greatest difficulty. In his directions for preventing the disease, then, Dr. H. proceeds on the principle that it always attacks those with the greatest violence who are of a full habit, and in a state of high health; while it is much less injurious to persons of a relaxed and debilitated frame, and who have reached that state of inirritability which is the usual consequence of residing in a hot climate. He advises that means should be adopted for inducing this state of relaxation and debility; and for this purpose he recommends that all the men who are sent to the West Indies should, during the course of their voyage, be put under the influence of mercury. The proposal is singular, such as may startle a timid practitioner, and which even the most resolute would not adopt without due consideration. It might also be objected to it, that the state into which the system is brought by mercury is not that of diminished irritability: but still we acknowlege that the suggestion appears worth attention; and it is certainly better than many of the projects that are daily offered to our notice.

This proposition, which occupies only a few of the first pages of the pamphlet, constitutes all its value; since the remainder is composed of a quantity of matter which, we imagine, must have been put together merely to give the pamphlet a *respectable size*. We must also remark that some passages savour strongly of puffing, and that the puffing is not well managed; not half so neatly as lottery-advertisements, which, indeed, have become real curiosities, and *chefs d'œuvre*. Thus, in a very long and fulsome dedication to the Duke of York, the author informs us that this prince, 'amidst numberless acts of condescending goodness, was pleased some years ago to honor the author in an official communication of personal approbation;' the whole dedication being evidently written in order to *bring in* this striking and important fact. A still more amusing instance occurs in the 14th page; where Dr. Stewart Henderson contrives to insert a parenthetical sketch of his life and adventures, which will no doubt prove highly edifying to all his readers, and more especially to the inhabitants of Birmingham, whence he dates. *Bos.*

Art. 16. *A Treatise on the Operation of Lithotomy*; in which are demonstrated the Dangers of operating with the Gorget, and the Superio-

Superiority of the more simple Operation with the Knife and Staff. Illustrated by Plates. By Rob. Allan, Surgeon. Fol. pp. 73, and five Plates. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1808.

We cannot enter into any report of the contents of this volume, without first expressing our strong disapprobation of the form in which it is given to the world. A treatise describing a surgical operation, which professes to contain information that may affect the lives of numbers, and which consequently ought to be read by all practitioners, is printed on the finest hot-pressed paper, with a large folio page, containing only 20 lines, and surrounded by a margin of between 3 and 4 inches:—the number of pages, with the exception of the explanation of the plates, is only 60; and we have found by computation that the matter would fill about 80 such pages as those of the English edition of Heberden's Commentaries:—the plates, in number only five, are but slight sketches;—and for all this we are to pay *a guinea and a half*.

The author, who comes before the public in this meretricious attire, informs us that he was formerly the apprentice and is now the assistant of Mr. Bell of Edinburgh; and that, although he is a young man, he conceives that the opportunities of acquiring professional knowlege, which he has enjoyed, may justify him in giving a decided opinion on a practical question. This statement respecting himself may be received in two points of view; on the one hand, we admit that his situation has been favorable for the acquisition of knowlege: but on the other hand the pupil of Mr. Bell may be expected to be biassed in favor of his master's doctrines; and it may be reasonably doubted whether he be competent to decide on a controversy, respecting which he must almost unavoidably have been induced to form a partial judgment. However, the author has no scruples of this kind; for the sole object of his work is to shew the superiority of the operation by means of the scalpel, over that in which the gorget is used.—We have been led to touch on this controversial point in more than one of our late articles; and our readers are probably aware that our judgment coincides with that of Mr. Allan: but the object at present is rather to examine in what manner the writer has defended his opinion, than to inquire into the justness of it; to ascertain whether he has adduced any arguments which were not previously before the public, or whether the old are placed in a more intelligible or more forcible point of view.

He begins by a history of the progressive improvements, or rather changes, which the operation has undergone from the time of the antients to the present day. In this sketch, we see nothing that calls for either much commendation or much censure; it is, we believe, generally correct: but it is very concise, and is such an account as might easily be extracted from former systems, without the labor of referring to the authors themselves. In the latter part of the work, Mr. Allan appears more in the character of an original writer; where he enters on a critical examination of the merits of the two instruments, the gorget and the knife. Against the gorget he argues with much warmth, styling the operation in which it is employed horrible and murderous. His principal objections against it are, generally, that the

surgeon

surgeon is cutting at random, and substituting a mechanical contrivance, which cannot be adapted to individual cases, for that scientific skill which may meet unforeseen difficulties, and may enable him to form his incision according to the circumstances of the patient. The individual objections to the gorget are, that it is liable to be driven into the pelvis, or between the bladder and the rectum, that the prostate gland is imperfectly divided, that the arteries are in danger of being cut, and that it is difficult to withdraw the gorget without wounding the parts through which it must pass. We confess that we approve of Mr. Allan's reasonings; since we think that the dangers which he points out are not imaginary, and that they principally attach to the gorget. The scalpel certainly requires a knowlege of the minute anatomy of the parts: but, without this minute knowlege, no one should presume to operate in any way; and if the surgeon be furnished with the necessary information, we apprehend less danger of improperly wounding any part, when the incision is performed under the immediate direction of a practised hand, than when it is accomplished by an apparatus which must necessarily always proceed in the same course.

We shall give our readers the arguments which the author uses in favor of the knife, in his own words; premising, however, that the quotation will afford a favorable specimen of the merits of the performance.

'1. It frequently happens that when a patient has labored long under calculus, the bladder is either in a thickened or a contracted state, or has such a degree of irritability, as renders it incapable of containing a table-spoonful of urine; in this state, if either the *bistouri caché* or gorget were used, we should inevitably wound it in its fundus; whereas with the knife we operate in perfect safety.

'2dly, It is evident that, if the stone be large, the incision of the gorget must be quite inadequate to its extraction without laceration; nay, the incision of the gorget barely admits the forceps, so that the operator is in danger of passing them betwixt the rectum and bladder, and grasping the stone through the coat of the latter. With the knife, he can safely enlarge his incision to any given dimensions.

'3dly, There is no danger of the point of the knife, like the beak of the gorget, starting from the groove of the staff, and missing the bladder; we pass it along, guided by the finger, and can enter the bladder safely in whatever position the staff may be held.

'4thly, Whenever the incision in the neck of the bladder is completed, the knife is withdrawn, and there is no danger of making a second cut in removing it, nor of the bladder wounding itself by contracting around the instrument.

'5thly, The only accident that is likely to occcur is the wounding the rectum; and although by caution this may be avoided, yet were it to happen, I do not conceive it to be of that alarming nature as to deter us from operating with the knife: it most commonly heals easily, and at worst would only form *fistula in ano*, curable by the operation: but, from what I have seen, I am confident that it is frequently wounded by the gorget, and passes unnoticed, being productive in truth of no dangerous consequences.'

Bos. Art.

Art. 17. *A Treatise on Inflammation, and other Diseases of the Liver, commonly called Bilious*; including the *Synochus Biliosa*; *Cholera Morbus*; Torpor; Schirrous; Biliary Calculi; which is preceded by a short Description of the Structure of the Liver, and the different physiological Opinions respecting the Use of the Bile. Lastly, is added a monthly List of Diseases, from the 1st of June, 1806, to the 30th of June, 1807, with the State of the Weather and Thermometer. By W. White, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Printed at Bath; and sold in London by Cadell and Davies. 1808.

In his preface, Mr. White informs us that his particular object in the composition of this volume is to give an account of a disease which he thinks has not been duly noticed by other writers, and to which he assigns the name of *Synochus biliosa*. This, however, we can scarcely regard as a sufficient apology for the undertaking, should it be found to require an apology, because Mr. White has already published a distinct treatise on this very disease: but he seems to regard his present work as a complete view of all the complaints to which the liver is subject; and he particularly points out the arrangement which he has formed of them, which he flatters himself 'will appear simple to the young practitioner, and afford him some assistance in discriminating the different morbid affections of the liver.' The merits of this arrangement we shall endeavour to appreciate.

Before he enters on the diseases of the liver, Mr. White gives some account of the structure of that organ itself, the secretion of the bile, its component parts, and the opinions which have been entertained respecting its uses in the animal œconomy. We had proceeded through a small part only of this introductory matter, when we discovered that Mr. White's method of writing consists almost entirely in making quotations from other authors, and even from such as are the best known and are in the most general circulation. He pursues this mode, indeed, without any desire of concealment, since his inverted commas fairly point out to the eye of his readers in how large a proportion of his pages he is indebted to the labours of his predecessors. Thus, on the structure of the liver, he very compendiously sets to work by quoting about half a dozen pages from Dr. Saunders's publication; and in treating on the use of this organ, he does little more than transcribe from that author, from Rush, and from others who have entered into these speculations.

Mr. W.'s arrangement of the diseases of the liver is, however, certainly original, and we shall give it in his own words:

'Hepatitis, or Sthenic Inflammation. Hepatitis Chronicus. Synochus Biliosa. Cholera Morbus. Periodical Cholera. Remarks on the indiscriminate use of Purgatives. Torpor, or Paralysis. Schirrous. Biliary Calculi.'

Our readers will probably be not less surprized than we were with the novelty of the 6th of these diseases; and, indeed, we are at a total loss to know to what genus in nosology we are to refer 'remarks on the indiscriminate use of Purgatives.' The word *schirrous*, as used substantively, we apprehend must be considered as an error of

the press; though it is repeated in the same form, and is not mentioned among the *errata*. We rather wondered at not finding jaundice in a list which purported to contain all the diseases of the liver: but the author informs us that he did not include it, because he regards it always as a symptomatic affection. The correctness of this opinion may, we think, be justly called in question: but, without entering farther into the discussion, we would ask Mr. White whether there are not many cases in which jaundice is the direct subject of medical treatment? This, we think, is a much more valid reason for including it among the diseases of the liver, than any conjecture respecting its symptomatic nature can form for omitting it. Before we leave this topic, we must notice one of the occasional causes of this disease that is pointed out; 'calculi in the parenchema (parenchyma) of the liver.' This is another specimen of Mr. White's originality.

We shall not follow the author through his observations on the two kinds of hepatitis; nor in his 'remarks on the term inflammation, and also on the remote and proximate cause of this disease,' since we find nothing that deserves our attention, and much that is commonplace and uninteresting. We therefore pass on to the *Synochus biliosa*: but Mr. White's account of this complaint, as we have before stated, is to be regarded as little more than a re-publication of his former work on the same subject; which, indeed, he very candidly avows. Notwithstanding that he must have had ample time for the correction of his first ideas on this point; his account of the disease still appears to us so extremely confused, that we are absolutely unable to form a distinct conception of what it is that he proposes to designate by it. According to his description, it assumes every variety of morbid action to which the human frame is liable. Sometimes it is disguised under the form of dyspepsia, and at other times under that of rheumatism; sometimes it resembles palsy; and at others it produces suppurations in the larger joints, hæmorrhages from the lungs, stomach, and intestines, or suppression of urine. Then we are told, in one place, that it is 'a distinct genus of fever;' we are afterward informed that it differs only in degree from cholera; and a third opinion given respecting it is that it 'is only a diminutive species of the bilious, or yellow fever, which occurs in hot climates.' The reader, we trust, will excuse us, if we do not consume his time in examining what the anthor says respecting the treatment of so indefinite, and incomprehensible a disease.

The small part of this work which professes to be original is defective in correctness of expression, and in accuracy of arrangement; exhibiting a total want of that lucid order without which observations, even although faithfully recorded, present only a rude heap of uninteresting facts.

Bos.

NOVELS.

Art. 18. *Sketches of Character*, or Specimens of real Life. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co.

This Novel contains so many heroines and so little plot, that, as a story, it cannot excite much interest; and we do not think that the want

want of the usual succession of adventures and misfortunes is compensated by the number of plebeian personages, who are introduced to enliven the work. These characters are, however, more naturally drawn than those in higher life, whose conversation is often too unpolished to be appropriate, though we fear that it is at other times but too characteristic. We were amused with Lady Aucherly's method of manœuvring with her husband, in order to atchieve her little projects; and with the description of a boarding-house dinner-party, which is written with truth and humour: but we must object that we did not find a sufficient distinction made throughout between *virtue* and *vice*: no moral is inculcated by the disgrace of the frivolous and fashionable set who trifle their lives away in vanities; and those characters, which are intended to rise superior to them, have scarcely any distinguishing points which can mark their pre-eminence. Mr Bar.

Art. 19. *Les Querelles de Famille. Par Auguste la Fontaine. Traduite de l'Allemand.* 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris. Reprinted in London for Colburn. 1809. Price 12s. sewed.

We were pleased to meet with another novel from the prolific pen of Augustus la Fontaine; an author who has the talent of interesting us in all the adventures and even in most of the little details which he introduces, and with whose hero the reader goes side by side, as a friend, to the end of the story. The present is a picture of domestic life, painted with more sober colouring than is generally adopted by the German novelists; the dialogue is natural; and the *naiveté* of youth is well represented. These authors have, however, the same fondness for minutiæ which debases the works of the Flemish painter; and in *les Querelles de Famille* this fault is often visible. When *Hermann* pays a visit to his rival, he does not suffer his friend to remain ignorant as to what coat he put on, but writes thus; '*Que je suis enfant! J'ai revêtu ma superbe uniforme*;' and when he is in despair on losing his mistress, and relates his narrow escape from falling down a precipice, he makes his regret at the preservation of his life almost ridiculous by a repetition of this exclamation, '*Ah! pourquoi cette interva le de deux pouces!*'—We lament the more this burlesque descent to trifles beneath attention, because, when it does not occur, we meet with passages of real feeling and touching expression. The *denouement* of this tale is rather forced, and the actions of the personages are by no means consistent with their characters. That of *Minette* is noble, but many of her proceedings are unworthy of her. She obtains the confidence of *Marie* by introducing herself as another person; and she learns the engagements of her lover by reading the letters which lie open on his bureau: then she plans an heroic sacrifice of her own peace to his happiness, and effects it by telling twenty falsehoods. Such actions as these, when committed without contrition, and related without censure, furnish a dangerous and dishonourable example to the youthful reader.—A fond father is also made to persist in marrying his child to a man whom he considers as unworthy of her; and the daughter, through a long courtship, though she despised the lover who was chosen for her, '*cacha soigneusement à son père combien il lui etoit désagréable*,' for no reason that we can discover, but that the novel might be terminated by a *Coup de Theatre*. D.o

Art. 20. *Cœlia in Search of a Husband.* By a Modern Antique. 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s Boards. Newman and Co. 1809.

'I would not *attempt* (says this writer,) to pourtray a *Cœlebs*; neither *my* vanity, nor my own *experience* in *la belle passion* could draw such a portrait: I would rather use my pen to trace a *natural* character: I believe the cause of *morality* to be more faithfully served in offering a *possible* point for our emulation, than in any *ideal* perfections that fancy, however sublime, could imagine.' The whole of the novel before us is conducted on this principle. Cœlia, though displaying moral as well as personal charms of no ordinary occurrence, is not absolutely out of nature. She acts up to the principles of religion, without any of the modern cant; with a mind perfectly feminine, she is bold enough to let reason take the lead; and, in a world of levity, she sets an example which the young of her sex in the present day would do well to imitate. To ladies and gentlemen, this Modern Antique (as the lady calls herself, if a lady it be who is the author,) reads a very instructive lecture. All the fashionable absurdities of the day are neatly satirized; and the modern London-fine-world is here drawn with exactness, and exhibited, as it ought to be, not as an object of envy, but of disgust; for life in London is, indeed, *wasted*, not *used*. Yet it is the wish of all females, educated on the present plan, to shine in this atmosphere of folly, and to display their *nakedness* (a new term for dress) "at midnight dances and the public shew."

Cœlia is introduced to the circles of fashion only to despise them. Morality and religion are made her rules, not the *usage of society*, nor the custom of the world. She distinguishes between innocent and degrading conformity, and never suffers fashion to obliterate principle. She exhibits the effects of an education truly moral and sensible, in the course of a visit to her sister, Lady Townley; appears to great advantage when contrasted with the various characters which fill the splendid drawing-rooms at the west end of the town; and shews her good sense as well in the offers which she rejects, as in the choice which she ultimately adopts. Our *noblemen-coachmen*, and our *naked, pocketless, shoe-making** ladies may not be pleased with the ridicule which is here lavished on them: but they richly deserve it; and if our modern fashionables were not ashamed of being considered as *moral*, the exhibition in these pages would lead to some reformation. Cœlebs attempted too much by endeavouring to make our fine people as religious as nuns and friars; and perhaps the efforts of Cœlia to infuse into them a little common sense may equally be thrown away. Can a luxurious capital be reformed by sermons, poems, or novels?

Moy.

POETRY.

Art. 21. *The Cruise;* a Poetical Sketch, in Eight Cantos. By a Naval Officer. 8vo. pp. 470. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard.

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* Our country readers may require to be apprized, that it has lately become the *ton* for young ladies to be employed in making their own shoes.

Dr.

Dr. Kirkpatrick's *Sea Piece* *, and Falconer's *Shipwreck* †, have long enjoyed established reputation, (though the former is not now perhaps so much known as the latter,) for the harmony of their poetry, the interest of their descriptions, and their just picture of a nautical life in a trading ship. We suspect, however, that they were not known to the author of the volume before us; though, perhaps, if they had been, he would not therefore have been induced to suppress his own composition, since its delineations relate entirely to the *regime* of a British *ship of war*, and his reflections are directed to the state of the British navy, at the present day. His design, therefore, is different; and different, we must add, are his poetical claims: but while of these we cannot speak highly, the accuracy of his representations may challenge equal commendation, and the justice and liberality of his sentiments demand a similar tribute.

The preface states that this poem was composed, as a source of amusement, during the leisure which the writer derived from the painful necessity of staying on shore to recruit an exhausted constitution; and that he conceived that it might not only be amusing to the young heroes of the navy, but instructive as developing their duty on service, and animating as exhibiting the gallant deeds of others. He has therefore given a description of the routine of duty in a cruizing frigate, of the incidents which arise from the variations of weather, and of the events of warfare in chace and in combat; relating, as we understand, such transactions as he himself has witnessed, though he has disguised the names of persons, ships, &c. His notes, also, besides giving a very proper explanation of all technical terms, contain a number of suggestions and reflections that will interest the professional reader. To such readers, we recommend the whole work; and to all others, who, besides the concern which every Briton must feel in his "wooden walls," is disposed to *take a cruise* in a frigate, without encountering the hardships of salt junk, the dangers of shipwreck, or the fatal effects of hostile bullets.

In adverting to Lord Nelson's attack on Copenhagen, the writer depicts the horrors of that dreadful battle as so overwhelming, that the crew of one of our ships were for a moment daunted. The anecdote is curious, since we take it from this author as a fact, and we quote the passage, which will also exemplify his style:

> 'It was on this day's sanguinary fight,
> A Fifty ‡ of our's soon became a sight
> Indeed most dismal!—torn by heavier shot,
> While many a noble Tar found death his lot!
> The quarter-deck a scene at length display'd,
> In the most horrid form of death array'd,
> When the few who were yet from slaughter sav'd,
> Turn'd an imploring, speaking eye, and crav'd,—

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* See Rev. Vol. ii. p. 257. † Rev. Vol. xxvii. p. 7.

'‡ A "Fifty-gun" ship is the smallest class of two-deckers brought into the line, although they are not properly line-of battle ships.'

But, mark me! not a word!!!—"some little mercy,
"That Heav'n for this must surely reimburse ye!"
'Thus to the Captain!—and the piteous look
His ev'ry nerve with agitation shook!—
But then it was his firmly fix'd resolve,
That let destructive fate howe'er involve
Himself, his ship,—and more—his gallant crew,
Still would he at his station'd post be true!!!—
'Whiz—again comes another murd'rous ball
Sweeping down some, unnerving even all!
This, human nature cannot now withstand,—
They turn! when, hark!—the ardent chief command,
"Stand to your Guns, Men," in a voice of thunder,
"Stand, I say, Sailors, tho' you're cut asunder."!!!—
'Scarce was the energetic hero heard,
Than they attend! aye, dread! his angry word
Far more than Death's uplifted vengeful stroke;
No more aghast!—the spell of Terror's broke,—
Again their deep-mouth'd guns with fury rattle,
And yet more deadly fierce! they urge the battle,
The more they're crush'd, the more they raise the cheer!
Banish'd is every sense of panic fear.
At length the fruits of such brave toil they share,
For lo! the stubborn foe explodes in air!!!
The dread concussion, and the splinters, force
Our batter'd hulk, at last, to alter course;
Tho' ne'er before! altho' the rival ship
With heavier metal did her vitals rip.'

The *Glatton*, and the *Isis*, were the only fifty-gun ships in Lord Nelson's squadron, that were engaged in this affair; and we suspect that in one of them our naval poet was stationed, probably the *Isis*, the loss of men in which vessel best corresponds with the above description. G. 2.

Art. 22. *Naval Triumph*; or, Nelson's last Wreath, a Poem. By W. D. Matthews. 12mo 2s. Faulder. 1809.

We were more interested in the subject than delighted with the execution of this poem. Mr. Matthews is welcome to add another wreath to those which already encircle the monument of Lord Nelson: but he must not displace a single stone, to make room for either flowers or weeds.

'*The sad muse devotes*' an episode '*to hapless Love*,' and we do not object to her following her fancy in this particular: but when the author calls on '*Celestial Truth*' to '*rouse the lofty strains*,' he should neither alter nor add to the information which he receives from her. He, however, makes 'the Foe confederate' steal away in the night, for the mere pleasure, as it should seem, of hearing '*Ocean growl once more beneath the prow*,' while *he* sends the British fleet in chace of them. He also mistakes in calling Captain (afterward Admiral) Hervey a Baronet.—In short, though Mr. Matthews seems to cherish a reverence for his hero, and an enthusiasm for his theme, in which we perfectly coincide

coincide, yet 'Celestial Truth' obliges *us* to acknowlege that his feelings as a Patriot are very superior to his conceptions as a Poet. *Mr.* Bar.

Art. 23. *The Senses.* An Ode; in the Manner of Collins's Ode on the Passions. 4to. 4s. Ridgway.

We have here a sort of *parody* on Collins's Ode on the Passions, with which it has more imitative analogy than the author seems willing to allow. It is certainly a disadvantage to any poem to be so far modelled on another of acknowleged superiority, as to remind the reader every moment of the charms of its rival:—but, as this misfortune is voluntarily incurred, its consequences must be unrepiningly endured. The ode before us, however, has merit enough to please, notwithstanding the comparison to which it lies open. It is written with taste and spirit; though we observe a confusion of qualifications in some of the figures, as when we read that

'HEARING *poured her tuneful tongue,*'

and that 'Jealousy *bade enlivening* HOPE *despair!!*' D°

Art. 24. *Sonnets of the 18th Century*, and other small Poems. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Kearsley. 1809.

It appears that these sonnets were written in the 18th, and published in the 19th century; by which means it is ingeniously contrived that two centuries shall have witnessed their existence: but as for the *third*, we fear that it has little chance of receiving them among the literary legacies of its predecessor. Their style is in general harsh and inflated, and their subjects are trite: but we find one, on '*Cold*,' which is picturesque and descriptive; and another, on the 'Revels' of children, which is pleasing and simple. D°

Art. 25. *Short Pieces in Verse.* By Clericus. 12mo. 1s. Crosby and Co.

Since this collection of verses is published for the benefit of a Lunatic Asylum in the city of Lincoln, we are unwilling to check its success by too severe a scrutiny of its poetic merits; particularly as the chief purpose of its publication may be fulfilled by the *purchase* without our insisting on the *perusal* of it. D°

Art. 26. *Ronald*, a Legendary Tale; with other Poems. Crown 8vo. 4s. Boards. Hookham, jun. 1809.

In these tales, we have evidently the effusions of a *School-boy, in love:* but, as he appears to be a lad of some feeling, we rejoice that he has suppressed his name, and that his future respectability and comfort are not dependant on the success of this juvenile performance. D°

Art. 27. *Miscellaneous Poetry;* by Thomas Green, jun. of Liverpool. 12mo. 4s. Longman and Co

This is in general a poetical catalogue of the author's good deeds, interspersed with a few stanzas on his hopes and fears, to which are added his angry 'Thoughts at meeting with a cool reception, in a friend's house.'—The good action, which forms the subject of the first poem, was that Mr. Green gave a dinner to a beggar, and, on hearing his story, invited the said beggar to live with him.—Another

of his exploits was rushing out in the dark, in defiance of his wife's entreaties, to save the life of a ship-wrecked boy; and in another poem, equally long, he describes the assistance which he and his companions afforded at sea to the crew of a sinking vessel: though, in this instance, all that we learn of Mr. Green's magnanimity is his joining in the cry of 'Huzza' when he saw them safe.

This volume may for obvious reasons prove interesting to the writer's father, to whom it is dedicated: but we have not the same curiosity for private biography which is conspicuous in the author, who makes both his beggar and his ship-wrecked boy repay their entertainment by a narration of their lives. The tale of 'Don Ferdinand,' from Shenstone's Essays, is among the best of these compositions: but altogether we cannot promise our readers much of either pleasure or profit from a perusal of this collection. D.º

Art. 28. *Poems*, by Miss S. Evance. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Although in some of these poems the verse is not smooth enough to convey all the beauty of the ideas, yet many of them display a purity of sentiment and a delicacy of feeling which intitle them to a considerable portion of our approbation.' Miss Evance is not, however, always happy in her comparisons; she talks of a *butterfly* '*playful as the waving trees*;' and she sometimes writes in a tone of querulous despair which we hope was not so much a habit of the mind as a transient affection, vanishing with 'the clouds,' the 'dew-drops,' and 'the waves,' that occasioned the lines in which this mournful spirit predominates. When fictitious wretchedness gives way to more rational considerations, she pleases by her power of imagery, her justness of reflection, and her elegance of thought. D.º

EDUCATION.

Art. 29. *Tales of the Hermitage*, in English and Italian, translated by V. Peretti. 2d Edition. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Dulau & Co. 1809.

Signor Peretti has already distinguished himself by the publication of a very useful Italian grammar; and this translation of some Tales, written by an English lady, will be a valuable present to youthful students of the Italian language. The nature of the Tales, which are intended merely for the amusement of children, will probably prevent them from circulating beyond the school-room: but a perusal of them might be more extensively advantageous in teaching the pronunciation of Italian In the preface, several plain and important rules for placing the accents are laid down, while every word throughout the Tales is accented so as to indicate the pronunciation which it requires: the English and Italian are printed opposite to each other; and the corresponding paragraphs are judiciously *numbered*, to prevent any difficulty to the most ignorant, in tracing their affinity. D.º

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 30. *A Series of Mercantile Letters*, intended to give a general Knowlege of Business to those young Persons whose Views are directed

directed to Commerce, and for the Use of Schools. By E. Hodgkins. Small 8vo. pp 241. 4s. Boosey.

This work is introduced by an Essay on Exchanges, containing tables of the monies of different countries; which is followed by a short description of foreign weights and measures, shewing their proportion to the weights and measures of England, and by an alphabetical list of technical mercantile expressions. After these preliminary notices, we come to the *Letters*, which are selections from real correspondence, and are chosen so as to present a great variety of mercantile communications. One letter contains a list of prices, another a note of exchanges, a third an invoice, a fourth an account-sale, &c. No doubt will remain on the part of those who read this little volume, that it has heen carefully and judiciously executed: but a general disposition prevails on the part of mercantile men to distrust, *in toto*, the efficacy of any other instruction in trade than that which is acquired by practice. This feeling proceeds from a confined view of the subject. No instruction, we allow, can supersede the necessity of practice, but the attainments of practice are exceedingly accelerated by the collateral assistance of study. The man who, on going abroad, determines to confine himself, in learning a foreign language, to the benefit which is derived from actual conversation with the natives, will find his progress much slower than if, in addition to conversation, he had called in the aid of a grammar and dictionary. The progress of a youth in a Counting-house is generally very slow. He is employed, during several years, in doing little else than carrying messages and copying letters; it rarely happens that he has the benefit of an instructor; he is left to collect and digest information in the best way that he can devise: and he would often run the hazard of being ridiculed, were he to seek that information in books. The consequence of this very defective mode of education, joined to the frequent want of superintendance out of doors, is that, of the youth introduced into Counting-houses, a considerable proportion become tired of their situations, and abandon them; while of those who remain, many continue so ignorant as to be unfit for employments of trust or difficulty. We cannot, however, enter into the wide field of discussion which the subject of mercantile education would suggest; and we shall only farther remark that, among the means of amending it, we are disposed to lay considerable stress on plain and well-digested books on commercial topics.

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Art. 31. *The Cottagers of Glenburnie;* a Tale for the Farmer's Ingle-Nook. By Elizabeth Hamilton. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

The second title of this tale almost serves to announce the great mixture of Scotch dialect which it contains; enough is however intelligible to gratify every reader of taste, and every lover of humour; and perhaps few writers, without "overstepping the modesty of nature," can produce scenes and situations equally comic, or, without departing from the airiness of narration, administer counsel equally weighty. We the less regret that our limits do not permit us to make

make extracts from this work, because we rather wish to induce than to supersede the perusal of it; and we are convinced that no extracts can afford so much pleasure as the whole tale will inevitably yield. *Mr. Bar.*

Art. 32. *Letters of the Swedish Court*, written chiefly in the early Part of the Reign of Gustavus III. To which is added an Appendix, containing an Account of the Assassination of that Monarch, with some interesting Anecdotes of the Court of St. Petersburg. 12mo. pp. 282. 6s. Boards. Cradock and Joy. 1809.

Several facts, derived from the private and public history of the court of Stockholm during the early part of the reign of Gustavus III., are here related in letters, supposed to be written by the persons themselves who were principally interested in them The main subject is the temporary coolness between Gustavus and his royal consort, soon after their marriage, with the means by which a reconciliation was effected. We are assured, in the preface, that not a circumstance is stated which is not sanctioned by the history of the times. This may be true; and the facts may be as honourable to the memory of the King and Queen of Sweden, as the author believes them to be: but the dress, in which he has made them appear before us, certainly does not contribute to excite our admiration for nor to interest our feelings in behalf of the principal characters. All the letters are very indifferently composed; and they do not even express the characteristic distinction of their supposed authors. Those of the King and the Queen are, however, the worst; and some of them are entirely in the style of the commonest novel which is issued from the manufactory in Leadenhall street. A couple of very short extracts will fully satisfy our readers, and exhibit the talents of the writer for describing interesting scenes and delineating great characters. Count Scheffer gives the following picture of the effect which the first discovery of the Queen's real attachment to the King, and of the injustice of all suspicions entertained against her, produced on the Monarch.

'Eagerly perusing the letter, I observed his eyes brighten and a glowing colour mount into his face; he seemed to proceed with a sort of breathless impatience. By a sudden motion he upset the small table with the chessboard, and king, queen, knights, bishops and pawns came rattling about our heels. Amazed at the noise and unconscious of the cause, the King looked for a moment angry—seeming to mistrust his eyes; he caught up one of the candles, extinguished it by his quick motion; and, complaining there were no lights in the room, was proceeding to the next apartment.' p. 112.

Soon afterward, His Majesty himself is made to write to his Queen from Finland, whither the most important concerns of the state had called him:

'Nothing but imperious duty should detain me; smarting under this uncertain absence, I am ready to abjure the motives, right as I thought them, which have brought me so far from my capital. Impetuous

petuous fool! to forget that for this absence you might have long remained ignorant of the sentiments of her you adore. Most gladly would I instantly fly, myself the second courier, to announce to my Magdalena the joy and health of her devoted. A tolerable article it would make in future chronicles — "His Majesty, after some years of coldness and inattention to his fair Queen (wretch that I am!), immediately on completing his voyage into Finland, on the most important affairs, returned with the speed of a courier, to throw himself at Her Majesty's feet, receive her forgiveness, and to return with the same speed to the completion of the important matters scarcely commenced.'—p. 136.

The appendix contains, besides a very insignificant account of the assassination of Gustavus III., an anecdote of his son, the late unfortunate King; which the author assures his readers he obtained from private and authentic sources.—When the King visited Petersburgh in the year 1796, with his uncle, who was at that time Regent of Sweden, and a marriage between him and one of the grand Duchesses of Russia had been settled, the day and hour were fixed on which they were to be publicly betrothed; the whole court was assembled; and the Empress appeared in all imaginable pomp, attended by the young princess, habited as a bride to receive the King. No King however arrived. On examining the articles of alliance, which were privately laid before him for signature by the ministers of the Empress, at the moment when he intended to go to court, he discovered that they contained engagements, on which he had not previously agreed with the Empress; and in consequence he refused to sign them, notwithstanding the urgent persuasions of his uncle, and all the Swedes of his suite. **Schw.**

Art. 33. *Letter to the Earl of Kellie*, concerning the Farmer's Income-Tax: with a Hint on the Principle of Representation, &c. 8vo. pp. 63. 2s. Wilson.

A very singular composition is here presented to us, by a Mr. Robert Gourlay, a landholder in the county of Fife, on the occasion of an affront, or supposed affront, received from Lord Kellie. The author says very little on the professed subject, the income-tax, but a great deal on his own political tenets, to which he appears to attach no slight degree of consequence. We regret that it is out of our power to rate them so favourably; since, although he appears to possess feelings of liberality in several respects, he acquits himself most unfortunately as an instructor of the public. Declamation and rash assertions pervade the whole of his pamphlet. **Lio.**

Art. 34. *Naufragia*, or Historical Memoirs of Shipwrecks, and of the Providential Deliverance of Vessels. By James Stanier Clarke, F. R. S. Chaplain of the Prince's Household, and Librarian to His R. H. 12mo. 2 Vols. 13s. Boards. Mawman.

Not only does this publication furnish a series of relations which will interest the sons of Neptune, incite them to bear the hardships of his reign, and furnish them with hints for expedients in misfortune, but it will amuse the general reader, by the nature and variety of its contents.

In

In the section relative to Alexander Selkirk, and the Adventures of Robinson Crusoe, Mr. Clarke seems to incline to an opinion which has been started, that Daniel Defoe was not in fact the author of that popular book; and he quotes, from the Gentleman's Magazine, Vol. lviii. Pt. 1. p. 208, a letter to Mr. Urban on the subject, which we are also inclined to transcribe.

"Mr. Urban, "Dublin, Feb. 25, 1788.

"In the course of a late conversation with a nobleman of the first consequence and information in this kingdom, he assured me that Mr Benjamin Holloway, of Middleton Stony, assured him, some time ago, that he knew for fact, that the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe was really written by the Earl of Oxford, when confined in the Tower of London; that his Lordship gave the manuscript to Daniel Defoe, who frequently visited him during his confinement; and that Defoe, having afterwards added the second volume, published the whole as his own production. This anecdote I would not venture to send to your valuable Magazine, if I did not think my information good, and imagine it might be acceptable to your numerous readers; notwithstanding the work has heretofore been generally attributed to the latter." "W. W."

The inquiry is not, perhaps, of much consequence, unless it were also contended that Lord Oxford did not take the real adventures of Selkirk as the basis of his narrative; yet we should be glad to have the question decided, as a piece of literary history. G. 2.

Art. 35. *Variety*, or Selections and Essays, consisting of Anecdotes, curious Facts, interesting Narratives, with occasional Reflections. By Priscilla Wakefield. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Darton and Harvey. 1809.

These Essays seem in every respect calculated to fulfil the intention of the compiler, by instructing without wearying, and amusing without weakening the minds of her young readers; and we can safely recommend 'Variety' as a very judicious and entertaining little work. Mr. Bar.

Art. 36. *Primitiæ*, or Essays and Poems on various Subjects, religious, moral, and entertaining. By Connop Thirlwall, *Eleven Years of Age*. The Preface by his Father, the Rev. Thomas Thirlwall, M. A. &c. &c. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Printed for the Author.

It cannot be denied that these compositions are extraordinary when we consider the extreme youth of the author: but we have never met with any lucubrations of a writer of nine years old, which we should not willingly have resigned till he had doubled his age, and was able to obey the wise though neglected precept of the poet, by revising his work at the end of that period. The difference between nine and eleven, in favor of Master Thirlwall, would not induce us to alter this remark: yet he has excited in us more surprize than most of his young literary contemporaries. We were pleased also to see his attention and talents directed to subjects of moral improvement and of religious instruction; and we remarked in his poetry an acuteness of observation, with an occasional felicity of expression, which made us augur well of his future productions.

We

We observe some contradictions in the essays, and some metrical defects in the poetry, which may be explained by the assertion of the writer's father, that 'his compositions cost him little effort, and that he seldom corrects a sentence after it is once committed to paper.' His compositions have indeed less the appearance of precocious efforts than of spontaneous effusions from a fertile mind: but to publish without correction is generally a proof of arrogance or of indolence: and we would repeat to every hasty poet the maxim of Rousseau, "*Le seul moyen de faire des vers faciles, c'est de les faire difficilement.*" Mr. Thirlwall, senior, should not have made this avowal for his son, because he ought to have prevented the fact, by inculcating the impropriety of it. D.º

Art. 37. *The Letters of a Peruvian Princess*, by Madame de Grafigny; also, as a Sequel, the Letters of Aza, by Ignatius Hungari de la Marche Courmont: to which are prefixed a Life of Madame de Grafigny, and a short biographical Notice of Marche Courmont. Translated from the French by William Mudford. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1809.

The Peruvian letters of Madame de Grafigny have long been admired for their elegance, and loved for the *naiveté* and sensibility which they exhibit; and they have already been translated into English more than once, though not in a manner which did justice to the original. Mr. Mudford has succeeded better than his predecessors: but he has perhaps been too literal in his copy; by preserving the French arrangement of the words, his sentences, though not absolutely distorted, are frequently stiff and ungraceful; and we are thus perpetually reminded that we are reading a translation. This servile adherence to the language as well as the sentiments of his model has led him into the mistake of making Zilia address her lover by the pronouns *thou* and *you* in the same paragraph: an anomaly which is used by the best French authors to denote an increased familiarity, or a heightened feeling, but which in English is both ungrammatical and unexpressive.

The letters of Aza, by La Marche Courmont, are by no means equal in style and sentiment to those which precede them; and Mr. Mudford appears to have been fully aware of their inferiority, as well as of the difficulties which they presented to a translator by their affectation and extravagance. This knowlege has not, however, aided him to overcome nor induced him to soften the faults of the original; and, at the end of his translation, he 'rejoices at the termination of his labour,' without the least contrition for having led his readers through the same labyrinth of absurdity by which he has been wearied.

The biographical sketch of Madame de Grafigny is interesting and well written; and the 'Historical Introduction' affords many explanations which are useful in elucidating the letters. We find also a characteristic description of the Peruvians, and of the causes which induced their superstitious submission to Spanish tyranny. D.º

Art. 38. *The Traveller's Guide;* or English Itinerary: containing accurate and original Descriptions of all the Counties, Cities, Towns, Villages, Hamlets, &c. and their exact Distances from London: together

together with the Cathedrals, Churches, Hospitals, Gentlemen's Seats, (with the Names of their present Possessors,) Manufactures, Harbours, Bays, Rivers, Canals, Bridges, Lakes, Salt and Medicinal Springs, Vales, Hills, Mountains, Mines, Castles, Curiosities, Market Days, Fairs, Inns for Post-Horses, &c. The whole comprising a complete Topography of England and Wales. To which are prefixed general Observations on Great Britain; including a correct Itinerary from London to the several Watering and Sea-Bathing Places; Lists of Inns in London; Mail Coaches; Wharfs; Packet Boats; Rates of Porterage; Postage of Letters; and every other useful Information, equally calculated for the Man of Business and the inquisitive Traveller. By W. C. Oulton, Esquire. Illustrated with 66 correct picturesque Views, and a whole Sheet coloured Map of England and Wales. 12mo. 2 Vols. pp. 800 and 900. Boards. 1l. 5s. Cundee.

It is truly observed by Mr. Oulton, that the reader can scarcely have an adequate idea of the immense labour of such an undertaking as this; and we do not wonder that he adds that, soon after he had commenced it, he was on the point of relinquishing it in despair. He did, however, proceed; and he declares that he has consulted every requisite authority, and has taken all possible pains to insure the attainment of accuracy, which is so essential in a compilation of this kind. It is not within our power to examine the work thoroughly, and therefore we cannot speak definitively of its merits on this point, which can only be decided by a long-continued consultation of it; and, indeed, as Mr. O. admits, the fluctuating nature of many of its particulars must constantly expose it to the chance of varying from 'existing circumstances.' We can, however, assure the reader that a vast mass of information is here collected, both for library-use, and for the guidance of the traveller; and that the medallion engravings annexed are in general very pleasingly executed. G. 2.

Art. 39. *Quid Nunc? Selections from the Poems of the late W. Cowper, Esquire;* contrasted with the Works of Knox, Paley, and others, on Fashion, Cards, Charity, Clergy, Priest, Pulpit, Duelling, Slander, Lying, Duplicity, Domestic Happiness, Vice, Seduction. 8vo. pp. 47. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

By these extracts, the compiler intends to display a picture of the existing state of morals, or rather of immorality; and to suggest those wholesome lessons on the above recited topics, which must be generally reduced to practise before we can be denominated a virtuous people. When this event will take place, Mr. *Quid Nunc* cannot tell us: but in the mean time we shall be glad if his pamphlet has a share in effecting it. May.

Art. 40. *Facts and Experiments on the Use of Sugar in feeding Cattle:* with Hints for the Cultivation of Waste Lands, and for improving the Condition of the lower Order of the Peasantry in Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. pp. 121. Harding, 1809.

This anonymous writer begins by assuring his readers that he has no interest whatever in the West Indies, and that his object is to serve the great body of the nation by increasing the quantity of grain and lowering

lowering the price of butchers' meat. He lays it down as the result of his experiments, that one shilling's worth of sugar will save two shillings worth of hay; and consequently that, were the use of sugar understood, the quantity of young stock raised would, in many parts of the kingdom, be greater than it is at present. He asserts that 'the use of sugar is one of the greatest enemies in the world to disorders among cattle, and perhaps disease will hardly ever attack an animal so fed.' He is an advocate for stall-feeding, and recommends the following plan for the use of molasses or sugar in the stall:

'Put up twenty head of cattle in a comfortable house, and have a quantity of lyng or heath cut when in full bloom, and stacked, after being exposed three or four days to the sun and air. Separate from the strong and woody branches the part which can be chewed; carry the latter to a trough placed before the young cattle, and sprinkle it over with the molasses, or dissolved sugar. On this food they will thrive surprisingly, and come out in spring superior to the cattle fed on hay, and in many places at half the expence. Lyng can be had in many parts of the kingdom where hay is not to be found.'

Since half the usual quantity of hay will be found sufficient when sprinkled with molasses, the author advises the use of molasses for this purpose on board of all vessels in which cattle are embarked, when the voyage is long, and a stock of hay must be laid in. He recommends it likewise for the cavalry and commissariat departments; supporting his predilection for sugar by the argument that the nourishing quality of hay, clover, &c. consists in their saccharine properties; and that, if hay be made to undergo the process of boiling, the virtue will be found in the wash. He relates the case of an old horse, which had become a mere skeleton, and was in vain turned out to grass, or fed in the stable with hay and corn, but which, when molasses were mixed with his provender, in the course of six weeks was completely recovered.—The cow-keepers form another of the classes to whom the author strongly urges the use of sugar or molasses, as conducive both to the increase of the quantity and the improvement of the quality of milk.

The next subject of discussion is the application of sugar or molasses to the food of sheep. The writer proposes that in land on which coarse grass is produced, such as sheep will not eat if left to themselves, a quantity of molasses, diluted in water, should be sprinkled over the grass with a common watering-pot, and the sheep be then driven to the spot: from which, he is of opinion, they will not stir till theyhave eaten this hitherto neglected grass down to the root.

The pamphlet is concluded by an appendix containing a correspondence between Mr. E T. Waters and the Board of Agriculture, in which the use of sugar is pronounced to be very advantageous. The danger of which the author is most apprehensive is that of giving too much at first; the cattle being apt to eat food, so prepared, in quantities which the richness of the sugar might render dangerous.

From the variety and minuteness of his agricultural comments, it is apparent that this author is not a merchant, but a farmer. The circumstances which we have mentioned form only a part of those to which he urges that the use of sugar is applicable; and we do not recollect to have met with a more zealous advocate, in the course of our

critical

critical labours. We are disposed to coincide with a great part of his opinions, and to believe that sugar may be used for cattle with eminent success: but we cannot avoid remarking that the number of proselytes, in a cause like this, is not likely to be augmented by the vehemence of the writer. A concise and well digested set of rules, supported by examples, would be the mode best adapted to our farmers, and would guide them gradually to that state of improvement of which our agriculture stands greatly in need in regard to fattening cattle, as well as in many other respects. LO.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We cannot, without violating a rule which we make invariable, insert in this place the note of *J. N.* of the City Road: but, if we take notice of the work to which it refers, we may perhaps see the propriety of stating the simple fact of which he assures us.

Inquisitor is informed that we have not neglected the valuable history of the amiable Fenelon, to the commencement of our account of which he refers: since he will find, in the Appendices to our 58th and 59th volumes, which it is evident he has not seen, the concluding articles which complete 'this (as he expresses himself) pleasing and instructive abstract.' We must indeed ever regard the life of this eminent prelate as an entertaining and improving study; and to those who cannot procure the book in question, which we believe is scarce in this country, we can venture to point out the analysis of it which we have given as not unworthy of their perusal.

*** The repeated and long existing complaints made by the readers of the M. R, especially those who reside in the country, of the inattention of their booksellers in not forwarding to them each *Appendix*, when it appears, induce us once more to state that these supplementary numbers are published constantly on the 1st of February with the number for January, on the 1st of June with the number for May, and on the 1st of October with the number for September, in each year. It is essential to the completeness of their setts, that our friends should regularly obtain these Appendices: but, independently of this consideration, if they are not procured, the reader is deprived of much interesting and instructive matter, which is here drawn from a variety of continental publications; and which, especially in these times, it is very difficult and expensive for us to provide. We partake, therefore, in the disappointment expressed by a number of Correspondents, when we find that our labour has been non-effective with regard to them; and we request that they will furnish us with a specification of the channel, in town and in country, through which they are usually supplied with the M. R., that we may discover where the fault originates in these instances.

☞ In the last Appendix, P. 473, l. 9. for 'illusion,' r. *allusion*.—P. 525. l. 30. for 'was,' r. *were*.

In the Rev. for September, P. 41. l. 26. dele the comma after '*fault*.'—P. 60. l. 10. from bott. insert a comma after '*nations*.'—P. 65. l. 17. insert a comma after '*us*.'—P. 104. l. 17. from bott. for 'The,' r. *These*.

Errors, 147, 155, 162, 216, 222.